DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 145 578 EA 010 047

AUTHOR Andrews, Philippa, Ed.
TITLE The Teaching of Educational Management in England and France--Part I. Papers from Anglo-French Study Conference 75/13. Coombe Lodge Report Vol 8 No 12.
INSTITUTION Further Education Staff Coll., Blagdon (England).
PUB DATE 75
NOTE 116p.; Best copy available; For a related document, see EA 010 048
AVAILABLE FROM Report Secretary, Coombe Lodge, Blagdon, Bristol, England BS18 6RG (1.10 pounds British currency)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 Plus Postage. HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrator Education; *Comparative Education; Curriculum; *Educational Administration; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; Higher Education; Management Education; School Systems; Tables (Data)
IDENTIFIERS *England; *France

ABSTRACT

At this international conference participants from England and France had the opportunity to examine each other's educational systems, consider common problems, and see whether they could learn from each other. This report consists of the background documents on which conference discussion was based. The papers fall into two areas--an overview of the two educational systems, one highly decentralized and one highly centralized, and a study of the teaching of educational administration in each country.
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Coombe Lodge Report

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Vol 8 No. 12

Papers from Anglo-French Study Conference 75/13

The Teaching of Educational Management in England and France — Part I

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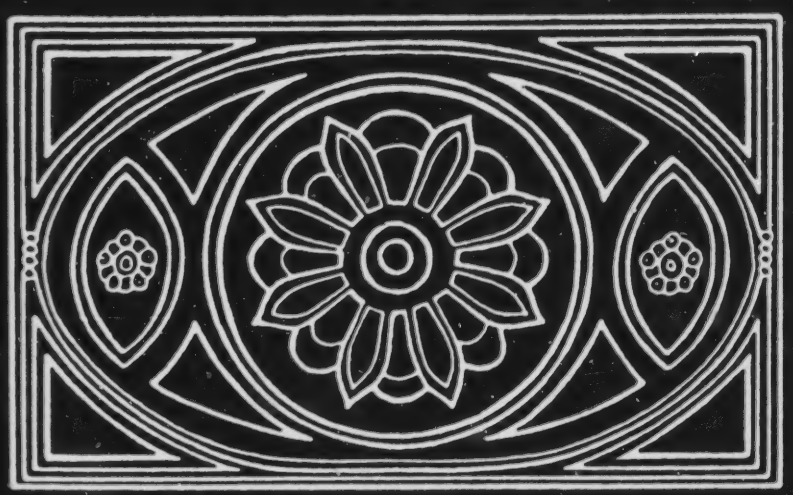

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ANGLO FRENCH CONFERENCE - THE TEACHING OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT IN ENGLAND AND FRANCE - PART I

Vol. 8. No. 12. 1975.

Collection of Papers from 75/13

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FOREWORD

The Education systems of France and England illustrate structures which are apparently quite opposite : one highly centralised, the other highly decentralised. At the first international conference to take place at Coombe Lodge, participants from England and France had the opportunity to examine eachothers' systems, consider common problems and see whether they could learn from eachother.

This Report consists of the background documents on which conference discussion was based. A second Report, Volume 8, No.13, will contain the conference proceedings. The papers in this issue fall into two areas: firstly, an overview of the two education systems and secondly, a study of the teaching of education management in each country.

C M Turner,
Staff Tutor,
Coombe Lodge

THE ENGLISH EDUCATION SYSTEM

I - STATISTICS

Total Population (Millions) United Kingdom

1901	1921	1941	1961	1971	1981 (projected)
38.2	44.0	48.2	53.0	55.7	57.3

Dependency Ratio per 1,000 Population of working ages

632	559	488	611	676	652

Live Births per 1,000 Population

28.6	23.1	-	17.9	16.2

Death Rate per 1,000 Population

17.1	12.4	-	12.0	11.6

Percentage of Wives and Mothers Economically Active 1971

All wives and mothers with dependent children	37.8
Wives and mothers without dependent children	42.1

Life Expectancy

	1901	1931	1961	1966	1971
Males	48.1	58.4	67.9	68.5	68.6
Females	51.8	62.5	73.8	74.7	74.9

Divorce England and Wales

	1961	1966	1969	1970	197
Rate per 1,000 married population	2.1	3.2	4.1	4.7	6.0

Education for Under-Fives United Kingdom

	1961	1966	1969	1970	1972	1973
% of age group 2-4 in Public or Private Schools	10.3	10.1	11.5	12.4	15.6	18.2

Denominational Schools (000's) England and Wales Only

		1950	1960	1970	1972
Primary	Denom.	1253	1220	1347	1372
	County	2703	2981	3566	3740
Secondary	Denom.	233	332	462	496
	County	1462	2390	2584	2756

Destination of School Leavers (United Kingdom) Percentages

	Universities	Colleges of Education	Other full-time FE	Employment
1961-62	4.3	1.6	3.8	39.5
1971-72	8.5	4.2	22.5	64.8

University Students (000's) United Kingdom

		1953-54	1961-62	1966-67	1971-72	1972-73
Full-time						
Undergraduates	Men	52.6	71.4	112.4	135.3	134.7
	Women	17.9	25.9	44.4	62.0	65.2
Post Graduates	Men	9.8	15.8	25.8	35.0	35.8
	Women	2.5	3.8	6.7	10.3	11.1
	Total	82.8	116.9	189.3	242.6	
Part-time						
	Men	13.3	16.4	14.2	18.4	18.2
	Women	2.8	2.9	.3	5.1	5.3

Higher Education: No. of Students United Kingdom (000's)

Full-time	1965-66	1969-70	1972-73
Universities	174.2	226.3	246.8
Colleges of Education	85.2	121.8	127.6
FE (Advanced Courses)	50.9	91.8	107.9
Part-time			
Universities	17.6	25.0	23.6
FE Part-time Day	60.0	80.0	77.2
Evening Only	50.2	47.6	39.4
Total	438.2	592.5	622.5

Further Education United Kingdom

Major Establishments	1966	1968	1970	1971	%
Full-time	207	245	269	282	8.1
Sandwich	23	31	39	43	1.2
Day Release	693	722	706	661	19.0
Other Part-time Day	92	110	128	138	4.0
Evening Only	854	807	787	792	22.8
Total	1868	1914	1929	1915	55.1
Evening Institutes					
Men	491	484	484	512	14.7
Women	945	961	989	1049	30.2
					44.9
Total Students	3301	3360	3402	3476	100.0

****

C M Turner,
Staff Tutor,
Coombe Lodge

II - THE ENGLISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The difficulty with describing the English system is that not only are there variations from one Local Authority to another, but that the whole school system is at the moment in the middle of a substantial change that will not be completed for several years yet. Some areas have scarcely begun to change: others are well into reorganising their schools to a new pattern. For convenience we will first describe the system as it existed after the 1944 Education Act and which is the base from which systems have changed or are changing.

All children started school in the year in which they were five and attended Primary School until they were eleven. Primary education was sometimes divided into two separate schools, the Infant and Junior, but otherwise Primary Schools contained Infant and Junior sections. At eleven all pupils went to a Secondary School on the basis of selection tests, the most able (about 25%) going to Grammar School, and the remainder going to Modern Schools. Until 1972, the school leaving age was 15, but by that time over 60% of Modern pupils stayed on to 16, and virtually all Grammar pupils. At 16 pupils could take the examination GCE 'O' level (General Certificate of Education), normally in about seven or eight subjects which could be used either as a leaving certificate for entry into a job, or as entry onto the two year 'A' level course. Some of the less able 16 year olds took an examination started in 1964 called CSE (Certificate of Secondary Education) modelled fairly closely on GCE 'O' level but more under the control of teachers. Most pupils studied their 'A' levels in a 6th Form of a Grammar School (generally in three subjects), but an increasing number left school to study them at a College of Further Education. These Colleges, of which there are about 600, were intended primarily to provide a wide variety of vocational courses, some full-time, some day-release, some block-release, at a level below that of a degree. Most have, however, developed a number of non-vocational courses and some students prefer studying at these colleges rather than in the school 6th Forms. The Colleges vary very considerably one from another because they respond to the local demands of commerce and industry and run courses at several levels and for various ages.

The GCE 'A' levels are used as admittance to the 34 universities of England and Wales. Most degree courses are of three years and lead to a BA (Bachelor of Arts) or BSc (Bachelor of Science) on graduation. Further years of study can lead to an MA (Master of Arts) MSc (Master of Science) or a Doctorate.

Teacher Training is done by attending a College of Education for three years to obtain a Certificate or four years to obtain a BEd Degree (Bachelor of Education). Graduates of universities can attend a one year course to obtain a teachers qualification. Whichever way a student qualifies, he is entitled to teach in any kind of school. Certification is not specific to one kind of school.

Since 1966, 30 Polytechnics have been formed. These institutions provide mostly degree level courses, but have much closer links with industry and commerce than universities, and tend to emphasise technological courses though covering also general Arts and Humanities courses, and do less research. Their degrees are awarded through a central agency, the CNAA (Council for National Academic Awards), unlike the universities they come under Local Authority control.

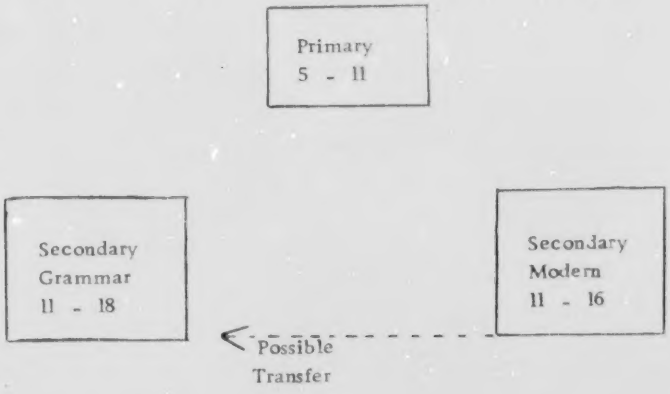
Present Changes

The reason for the changes in the school system come from two sources.

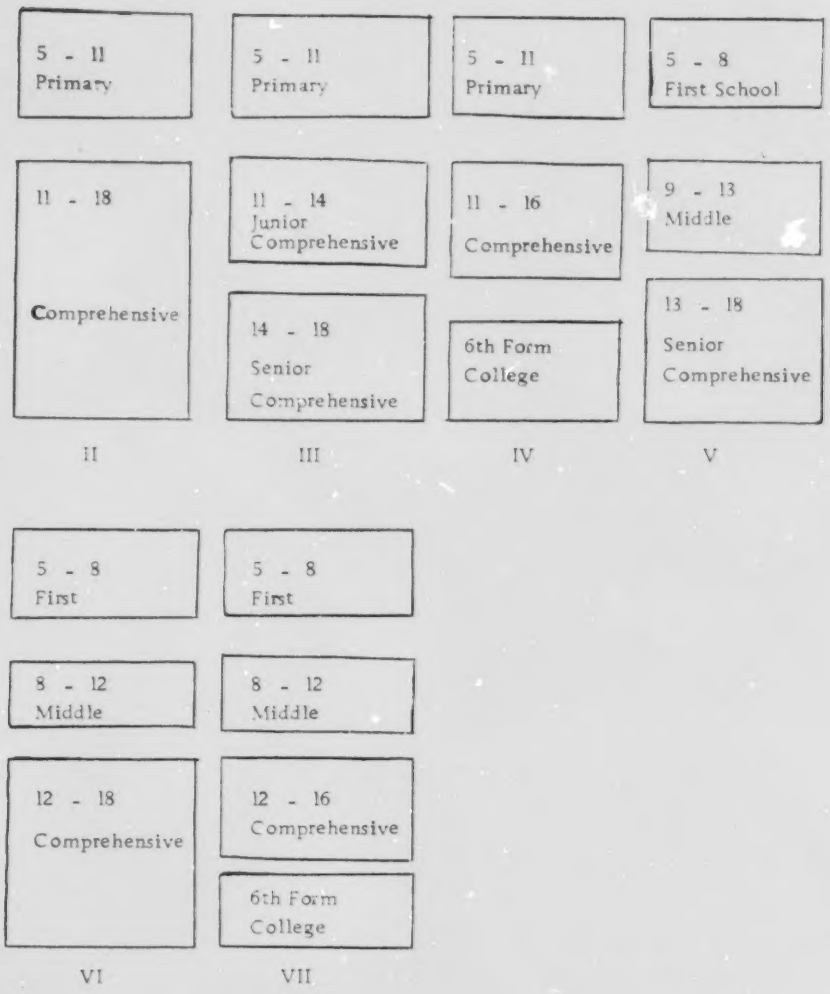
1. In 1965 the Government decided that dividing pupils between two kinds of institutions at 11 was unsound and asked all Local Authorities to introduce comprehensive schools, though they had freedom to decide in what manner they would do this, and several varieties have been implemented.

2. In 1966 a government report on Primary Education suggested that between Primary Schools and Secondary Schools should be a new kind of four year school, the Middle School. Unfortunately they proposed alternatives - either an 8 to 12 school or 9 to 13 school. Not all Local Authorities have decided to implement Middle Schools, both for financial and educational reasons.

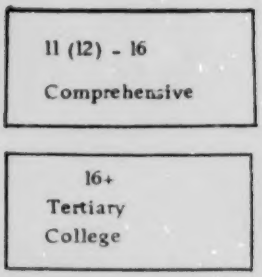
Thus we now have some areas still with the basic model of 1944.



Other areas have chosen systems as follows:



In all cases, students can transfer at 16 to a Further Education College, but a special variant is when all such students have to transfer to such a college which is renamed a Tertiary College.



VIII

It is not necessary that a Local Authority should use only one model. In the County of Somerset one area still has the basic 1944 model, and other areas have model II, Model VI and Model VIII.

At the post 18 level, the most important current change is the reorganisation of the 142 Colleges of Education. Only a handful will remain as Colleges devoted solely to teacher training. Some score or more will expand as Liberal Arts Colleges, one or two will join Universities, but the majority will join Polytechnics or Colleges of Further Education.

There is also a general movement to join smaller Further Education Colleges together to form larger institutions, and a series of such amalgamations are currently being implemented in London.

****

C M Turner,
Staff Tutor,
Coombe Lodge

III - CURRICULUM

All the current trends in curriculum reform can be traced back at least to 1900, and many individual schools in the early part of the century produced interesting but often unrecorded experiments. These various trends have been gathered up in the last ten years into a powerful movement backed by much research from universities and official bodies such as the Schools Council. Nevertheless it is probably still true that the work of individual teachers or schools is setting the pace for changes in the curriculum. It is not easy to disentangle the various components of this movement but I would suggest that the following six are the most significant.

1. Learning by Discovery

This has become the basis of Primary School education. The belief is that a child learns well, in the sense of understanding, only when he discovers facts, ideas and relationships for himself, either working on his own or in a group.

He does not learn well when a teacher transmits knowledge directly to him which he is supposed to learn. The teacher's job therefore is to create situations in which the pupil can discover for himself but without telling him where he is to get to. It follows that much classroom work will be done by pupils working on their own and progressing at their own pace. Every pupil in the room may be working at something different. In the Infants School much of what appears to the outsider as unorganised play is in fact carefully set up learning by discovery.

2. Project Work

In the upper Junior School, the Secondary School, and increasingly in the Colleges, Learning by Discovery has developed into Project Work when a pupil or group of pupils are given an open-ended task to tackle which may last several lessons, which will require research, organisation of facts, creative thinking, and a variety of methods of presentation. The teacher acts as consultant. Projects frequently take pupils out of the classroom and the school. The use of projects as part of examination procedures has become common on many CSE courses and vocational courses in FE Colleges.

3. The Rewriting of Syllabi

From the late 1950's much attention was paid to the complete restructuring of syllabi, defining each objective to be reached and the methods by which this should be done. Learning was broken down into small steps, each carefully related to the main concepts which were to be mastered. Much learning material was produced to support these programmes and was published commercially. The pioneer in this field was the Nuffield Foundation which produced schemes in Mathematics (the so-called Modern Mathematics), Sciences, and French. A programme which was much more difficult to write on Humanities was produced by the Schools Council. All the programmes were written flexibly so that teachers could adapt them to their own requirements. Not all schools adopted them, and there were not many retraining schemes for staff wishing to use them. Furthermore, a number of rival schemes were produced, so that a school could choose between three or four different French teaching schemes and this created difficulty for pupils who had to move from one school to another. However, the principle of writing syllabi on a rational basis gained wide acceptance.

4. The Use of New Materials

From all the three previous trends came a great interest in the use of materials other than books for teaching - films, slides, tapes, models, programmed machines etc. - and larger schools and most colleges are now acquiring resources centres staffed by expert educational technologists to advise in the use of such materials. This trend of course has substantially altered the way in which teachers present their lessons.

5. Integrated Subjects

There has also been much experimenting in altering the divisions between subjects. Mostly this has involved the attempt to integrate into one course subject matter previously taught separately by several subject departments. In some schools this has been organised by a system commonly known as IDE or IDS (Inter-Disciplinary Enquiry or Study), where various subject teachers work as a team to plan a year's work, the core of which is the use of projects that draw upon all the disciplines. Several varieties of team teaching have been developed, all requiring careful planning and discussion by its members. In other schools and colleges hybrid subjects have developed such as environmental studies, which are taught more traditionally but in which different parts of the syllabus have been taught by different subject specialists. To some extent these new syllabuses have been motivated by a demand by students for courses of greater practical relevance, whatever they mean by this.

6. Examinations

Much of this new approach to the curriculum has not fitted in easily with traditional methods of examining by a series of written papers at the end of a course. Such examinations have been heavily attacked by many educationists and particularly by students themselves. While most courses that award an external certificate still have a terminal written examination, many of them now incorporate a system of continuous assessment as well, in which grades are awarded for written and practical work done throughout the course, though this has raised some problems of standardisation of marking. Also students' projects generally count towards their final examination grade. Examinations themselves are beginning to incorporate methods other than the traditional essay answer or working problem, and in particular are making use of multi-choice question setting.

It should be stressed that the picture is very varied over the whole of the country, as much of the initiative to institute curriculum changes comes from individual teachers. Some teach in ways very little different from twenty years ago, while others are pioneering new methods. But the general trend is for there to be more and more debate about the curriculum, and even if a teacher changes very little, he hears much about the changes that are possible.

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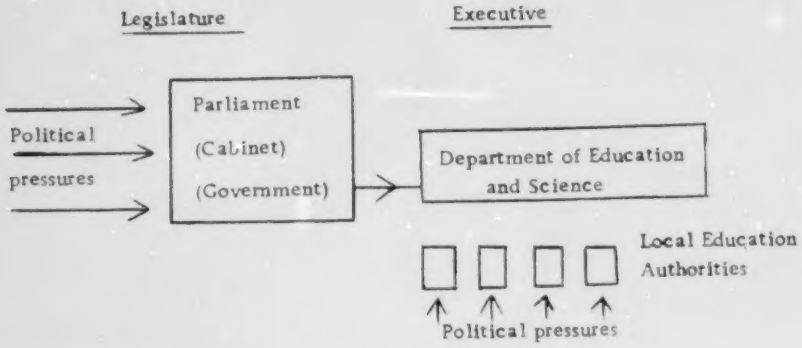
D P J Browning,
Chief Education
Officer,
Bedfordshire

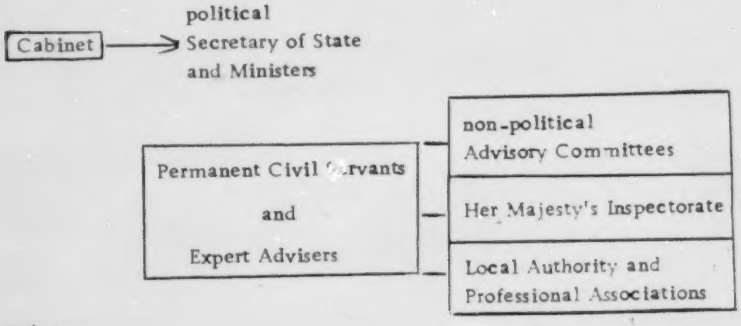
IV - DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSIBILITIES WITHIN THE SYSTEM*

Structure of Educational Administration - National Level



Department of Education and Science

Structure



Functions

(a) prepares legislation and advises ministers

(b) 1. approves establishment of schools/colleges and any changes
2. maintains records
3. collects and spreads information
4. promotes new school design
5. recognises teachers qualifications
6. inspects schools/colleges

(c) helps to finance universities and scientific research

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*Amended from 'Local Education Authorities in England' delivered to the BEAS International Intervisitation Programme 1974.

(d) negotiates with pressure groups

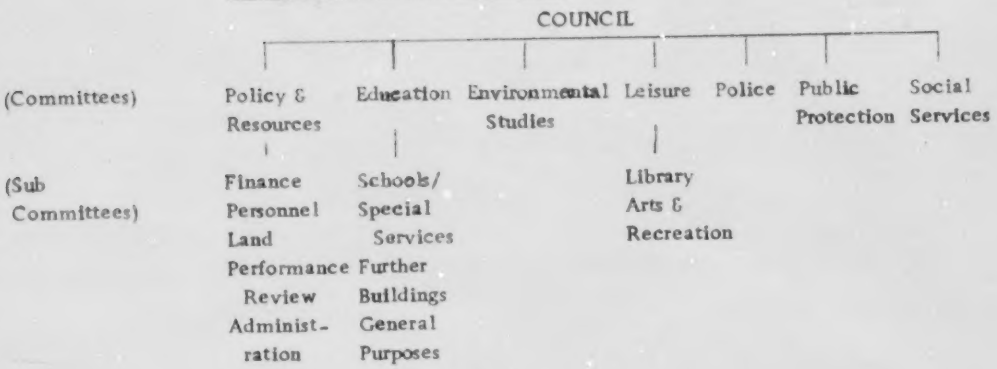
(e) conducts international relations

(f) supervises Local Education Authority development

(g) DOES NOT

1. own schools
2. pay teachers
3. determine curriculum, syllabuses and methods
4. choose or publish textbooks or teaching aids
5. set or mark examinations

The Local Authority (Bedfordshire)



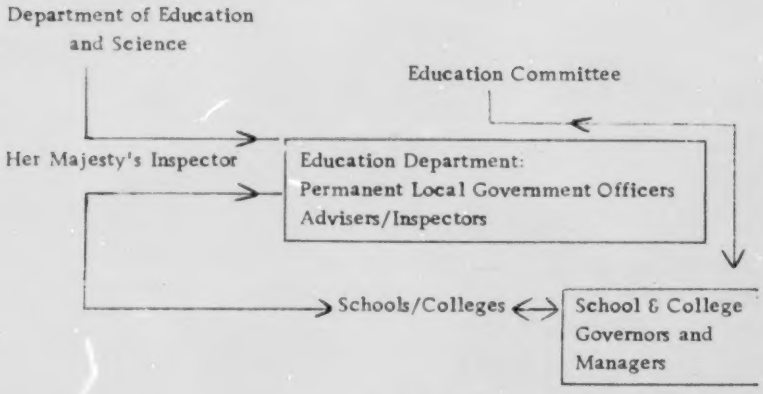
Chief Officers

Chief Executive
County Architect
Chief Arts and Recreation Officer
Chief Constable
Chief Consumer Protection Officer
Chief Education Officer
Chief Fire Officer
County Surveyor
County Librarian
Personnel Officer
County Planning Officer
County Secretary
Director of Social Services
County Treasurer
County Valuer and Estates Officer

Management Group

Chief Executive
Chief Education Officer
County Planning Officer
County Secretary
County Surveyor
County Treasurer
Director of Social Services

The Local Education Authority



Functions of the Local Education Authority

1. plans organisation and development of primary and secondary education, further/higher education, adult education and youth service.
2. provides schools/colleges and equipment
3. provides playing fields
4. employs teachers and support staff (caretakers, cleaners, secretarial and clerical staff, libraries, technicians, school meals staff, welfare assistants)
5. allocates children to school
6. provides transport, milk and meals
7. makes grants and allowances
8. employs education welfare officers, counsellors and careers advisers
9. may provide in-service training, teachers centres, centralised audio-visual aids service, field study trips and residential centres, nursery education.

Local Education Authority DOES NOT:

impose	curriculum
	syllabuses
	methods
	teaching materials
	examinations

Educational Objectives (Bedfordshire Local Education Authority)

1. Opportunities for each individual at any age to develop his/her personal gifts and extend his/her personal capacities.

2. The promotion, as required by the 1944 Education Act, of 'the spiritual, moral, mental and physical development of the community by securing that efficient education' is available and that such opportunity are equal for all sections of the community.

3. The provision of the statutory system of public education organised into the progressive stages of:

   (i) Nursery Education
   (ii) Primary Education
   (iii) Secondary Education
   (iv) Further/Higher Education

4. The promotion of the education of the people of Bedfordshire through the progressive development of educational institutions in the county through which a varied and comprehensive educational service is made available.

5. The provision of leisure-time opportunities through organised cultural and recreational activities for persons over compulsory school age.

6. The provision of special educational and leisure opportunities for those handicapped by serious disability.

7. The provision of a comprehensive library and records service readily accessible to each individual in support of his/her educational, cultural and recreational pursuits and needs.

8. The training of young people in their social responsibilities and the possibility of making the necessary provision in school curricula.

9. The enlargement of understanding, knowledge and experience through the promotion of international friendship and co-operation.

Local Education Authorities in the United Kingdom

Before 1st April 1974

	Counties	County Boroughs	ILEA and London Boroughs	Div. Exec. and Excepted Districts
England	47	79	21	162
Wales	13	4	-	12
N. Ireland	6	2	-	-
Scotland	31	4	-	-
Channel Islands	2	-	-	-
Total	99	89	21	174

After 1st April 1974

	Non-Metropolitan Counties	Metropolitan Districts	ILEA and London Boroughs
England	39	36	21
Wales	8	-	-
	Counties	County Boroughs	Education and Library Branches
N. Ireland	-	-	5
Scotland	31	4	-
Channel Islands	2	-	-

The School Level

Who decides what?

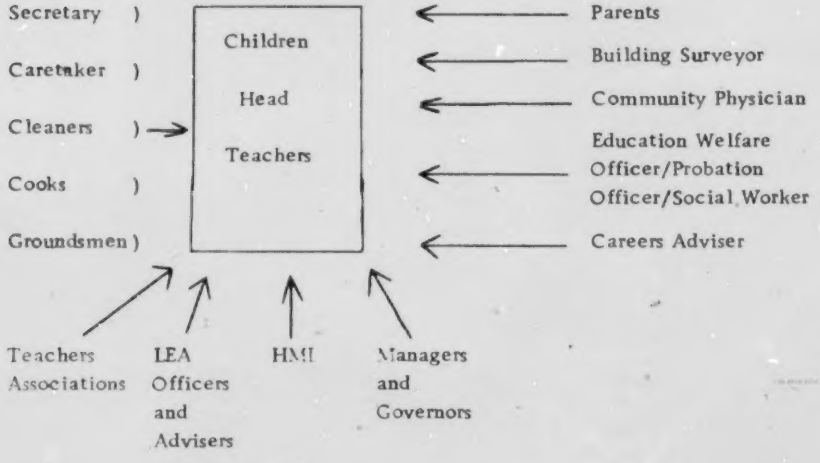
Head and Teachers with Local Education Authority decide:

curriculum
syllabus
materials
equipment

Head and Teachers are responsible for:-

internal organisation
timetable
choice of examining bodies
relations with parents
teaching methods
books

How does it look for the School?



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C M Turner,
Staff Tutor,
Coombe Lodge

V - COMMENTARY : THE PRESENT STATE OF ENGLISH EDUCATION

Tha aim of this commentary on the background papers is to suggest some of the important areas of educational debate and add a dynamic perspective to the static information offered there. It is of course a subjective view of one person. I propose to draw attention to nine such areas which I consider are central to the current situation in the British educational scene.

1. Education as a consumer product

It is clear from the figures that there has been a growth in absolute and relative terms in the number of students receiving education after the age of 14, which in 1945 was the age at which compulsory education ceased. Partly this growth has been enforced by statute. In 1946 the minimum age of learning was raised to 15, and in 1972 to 16. There is at present some commitment by the political parties to raise it further, but this may be done by compulsory day release up to 18 as in the style of Germany. Partly it has arisen from the demands of employers that employees should possess certain kinds of school and college qualifications, and the trend has been for employers to raise the level of qualifications they expect for each job.

Mostly, however, I would argue that extended education has come to be seen by parents and young people as another of the desirable consumer goods offered by an affluent society, which will probably be of specific advantage to them, but which is valued as of general desirability in itself. This has strongly been reinforced by the emergence of a student sub-culture which many school pupils see as a period of their life through which they should naturally pass. The Robbins Report (1962/63) on Higher Education made explicit the policy of providing extended education for all who demanded it, and the 1960s were a period of very considerable expansion. In the last two or three years, some doubt has been expressed as to whether demand from young people is likely to decrease rather than increase, but evidence for any conclusion is at the moment very tentative. What is clear, from BP 1, is that because of changes in the birth rate fewer people will be moving into the age brackets 16-21 after 1980.

2. Equality of Opportunity

There has been a general movement towards providing greater equality of opportunity in the education service - an elusive goal, perhaps, but one which has occasioned much action and research over the last 30 years. The 1944 Education Act established secondary education for all pupils, although in nearly all areas a selective system was used of dividing pupils at 11 on the basis of predictive tests of performance into Grammar Schools (about 25%) and Modern Schools. It is now fairly generally accepted that such institutional division created inequality and disadvantage that followed the Modern School student through the rest of his career. Thus, particularly

since 1965 when the Labour Government of the day decreed that all such selection should be phased out, Grammar and Modern Schools have steadily been replaced by Comprehensive Schools of one sort or another. At present about 50% of students are in Comprehensive Schools. Arguments are now turning more to the ways in which internal organisation of schools, early child rearing practices, and home environment create educational disadvantages for some children. In particular there has been attempts to provide nursery schools in poorer areas, and within schools a steady movement away from rigid streaming by ability. At the post 16 level, Great Britain claims to have a higher proportion of working-class students in Higher Education than any other West European country. Attempts to provide second chance education for adults who had fewer opportunities when they were young has been held back by lack of finance rather than lack of intention, but among more hopeful signs are the success of the Open University and the development of a number of community colleges.

3. The Hierarchy of Institutions

In spite of this general move towards equality, the English show a remarkable penchant for creating hierarchies of institutions in terms of prestige. This is not so obvious at school level any longer, although outside the comprehensive school system lie the prestigious independent schools (the so-called Public Schools) and Direct Grant Schools. Beyond 16, however, the institutions are not only varied in type but are by general acceptance ranked as of greater or lesser prestige. At the apex are Universities which have kept almost entirely to Degree work, then Polytechnics and Colleges of Education who provide professional training as well as Degrees, Colleges of Technology which do some degree work but mostly a wide range of middle range vocational courses, and Colleges of Further Education which mostly cover lower level vocational and general courses. The differences are not only of prestige but also of such things as the degree of Local Authority control, the amount of research, staff conditions of work, types of staff pay structures. We have moved nowhere near the concept of the comprehensive university or college, and it has been argued that we have replaced selection at the age of 11 by selection at 18. It seems likely that in the near future most Colleges of Education will become or be absorbed into multi-purpose institutions, but as happened with the Schools of Art and of Music some will survive as independent monotechnic organisations.

4. Autonomy

The principle of autonomy and decentralisation is strong in the educational system, partly no doubt through the historical fact that most education in the 19th Century was provided by voluntary organisations and the state only filled in the gaps up to the time when the whole enterprise became so big that it had to become the major provider. Even in 1972, 9% of secondary pupils were educated in independent schools, and 49 out of 142 Colleges of Education were controlled by the Churches. The principle of autonomy can be seen at three levels:

(a) Local Authority. Mostly the discretionary powers of the Local Authorities have not been significantly reduced over the past 20 years. Major changes in the system, for example in implementing comprehensive secondary education or restructuring Further Education, have been left to the interpretation of the Local Authorities so that separate variants within a rather broad national directive exist throughout the country. In many smaller matters, the Local Authorities have full powers to be very different from their neighbours - for example in many types of student grants, in financial support for Student Unions, in the Articles of Government of its colleges. The disappearance of the smaller Local Authorities in April 1974 and the enlargement of the remainder, has probably strengthened the Local Authorities vis a vis central government.

(b) Institutions: They also have considerable autonomy, which is probably greater in the schools than in post-school institutions. Within some very general checks, the Headteacher and his staff in a school can decide what subjects they will teach, what will be the syllabus and curriculum, how subjects will be taught, and how the school will be internally organised. The Colleges of Further Education and Polytechnics have to obtain authority of local or regional level to run courses, but they have control over how they teach and how they organise themselves internally. In all cases teachers are appointed by the Local Authority, and their pay and working conditions are under national agreements.

(c) The Individual: Traditionally, the teacher submits to very little inspection or control over how he teaches, or indeed, within the general limits of the syllabus, of what he teaches. The jealously guarded right of the teacher to be seen as a professional who should not be judged by others, has led to extreme nervousness among managers in attempting any kind of monitoring of the teacher's performance. Monitoring of teachers is probably strongest among Primary School teachers and weakest in Higher and Further Education.

5. Centralisation

There is however a counter-thrust to autonomy that is emphasising central control. The central government is now providing two thirds of the money Local Authorities spend. It controls the number of teachers trained and their certification. It controls the capital expenditure on buildings of schools and colleges, and indirectly of universities. Its approval for changes in the organisation of school or post-school education in Local Authorities is now subject to closer scrutiny and critical analysis. It seems likely that the financing of much education particularly teachers' salaries which is at the moment done by Local Authorities will shortly be transferred to direct financing by Central Government. While it is unlikely the freedom of

institutions to determine syllabuses and methods of teaching will disappear, it is being eroded at the edges by the influence of such bodies as the Schools Council and the Nuffield Foundation whose schemes for the teaching of Sciences, Mathematics, and Humanities have been widely adopted in schools. It can also be argued that the scrutiny of schemes for the award of Degrees or Diplomas by the CNAA is becoming more rigorous.

6. Corporate Management

The trend towards centralisation is paralleled at Local Authority and Institution level by the development of new styles of management which can loosely be described as 'corporate management', and in which a key element is the working out of objectives and a strategy for implementing them across the whole field of the Local Authority or Institution. As such there has to be much more discussion and joint decision-making by all involved, but against this individuals, including the Local Education Officer or classroom teacher, have lost some of their freedom of action.

7. Curriculum Reform

At least since 1900, the British educational system has encouraged innovation and experiment in curriculum to a very high degree. Some evidence of this can be seen in the emergence of new trends in Infant teaching between the two World Wars, and in Junior teaching over the last 20 years. It is probably true, however, that today more energy is being put into re-thinking the curriculum than at any time in the past. There are more journals, articles, conferences, courses, research units and professional chairs in curriculum reform than ever before. Indeed our interest has spread from viewing the curriculum in educational terms to viewing it also in terms of social and political mechanisms of control. It is possible that the greatest area of controversy in the next few years will not be concerned with resource allocation, or how institutions are divided up and governed, but will be a dispute of what should be taught, to whom, in what kind of setting, and under whose control.

8. Size

There has been a trend since 1945 to increase the size of all institutions. Very many small village primary schools have been closed and an average size, in so far as this means anything is probably around 250. As secondary schools have become comprehensive, so they have become much larger. Whereas 20 years ago a school of 700 was considered large and many were not much over 200 today there are few schools below 500 and many between 1,000 and 2,000 pupils.

Colleges of Education were 20 years ago generally not much over 500 strong with many having less than 200 students. Today the average college is 750 and of those that are not shortly to join with another institution, the minimum target size is 1,000.

Polytechnics vary considerably in size from 2,000 to 5,000 but if current predictions turn out to be accurate the larger will be of 8-9,000 full-time equivalent students by 1985.

Universities are mostly reaching figures around the 10,000 mark whereas 20 years ago many were at 3,000 or less, and their average size in the 1980's will be about 11,000.

9. Cost-Effectiveness

Expenditure on education has never been lavish, but as the proportion of the Gross National Product spent on education goes over 6 per cent, as the rate of growth of the economy stays below 3 per cent, as the government attempts to control public expenditure more rigorously, so the education system comes under increasing scrutiny to see if it is as cost-effective as it could be. There is comparatively little that can be done in the sections dealing with compulsory education so interest has centred on the post 16 age group. In particular, rationalisation in the area of overlap between colleges' and 6th Forms' provision for 16-19 year olds, in the duplication of vocational courses in neighbouring colleges, in the effective use of college staff, and in the economic grouping of students, are all likely to be of central concern to the educational decision makers."

Mlle Delclaux,
Archivist,
Institut National
d'Administration
Scolaire et
Universitaire.

THE FRENCH EDUCATION SYSTEM I - STATISTICS

Total French population

Evolution of the total population according to census and 1972 INSEE assessment.

TABLE I

	Total Population	Male Sex	Female Sex	Natural Yearly Surplus	Yearly Migratory Blanace
10th March 1946	40 135	19 128	21 007	+ 298	+ 25
10th May 1954	43 000	20 764	22 236	+ 292	+ 51
7th March 1962	46 459	22 560	23 899	+ 291	+ 860
1st March 1968	49 706	24 229	25 477	+ 282	+ 100
1st January 1972	51 485	25 176	26 309	+327	+ 109

SOURCES : INSEE. Annuaire Statistique de la France.

The Total Population includes every person (French or foreign) normally living in metropolitan France, inclusive of those temporarily outside of France but due to return within a short period of time (mainly the military personnel stationed outside of the country).

TABLE II Population Distribution in Age Groups.

Percentage proportion

YEARS	UNDER 20 YEARS	20 TO 64 YEARS	65 YEARS AND OVER
1946	29.5	59.4	11.1
1954	30.7	57.8	11.5
1962	33.1	55.1	11.8
1968	33.8	53.6	12.6
1970	33.1	54.1	12.8
1972	32.7	54.3	13.
1974	32.3	54.5	13.2

SOURCES : Bulletin Mensuel de Statistique, INSEE No. 1st January, 1974.

Of the 52.3 million inhabitants which constituted France on the 1st January, 1974, 16.9 million were under twenty, 28.5 million were between twenty and sixty-four and 6.9 million were sixty-five and over. The population of young people in the total population has diminished regularly since 1968, a year when it reached 33.8%. On 1st January, 1974, it was only 32.3%. The proportion of people of working age was 54.5%. The proportion of people of sixty-five and over is slowly rising and it reached 13.2% on the 1st January, 1974.

TABLE III

Working population employed according to the categories of economic Activity set out in census and assessment of 1st January, 1972.

working population

	March 1946			May 1954			March 1962			March 1968			January 1972		
ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES	S M	S F	E	S M	S F	E	S M	S F	E	S M	S F	E	S M	S F	E
Manpower in Thousands Primary Sector	4325	2318	6643	3733	1835	5568	2933	1306	4329	2346	1026	3372	2021	886	2907
Indices	100	100	100	86	79	83	68	56	64	54	44	51	47	38	44
Manpower in Thousands Secondary Sector	4180	1660	5840	4815	1679	6494	5341	1742	7083	5889	1774	7663	6182	1819	8001
Indices	100	100	100	115	101	111	128	105	121	141	107	131	148	110	137
Manpower in Thousands Tertiary Sector	3900	2917	6871	3864	3021	6885	4204	3530	7734	4798	4129	8927	5220	4706	9926
Indices	100	100	100	99	104	101	108	121	113	123	142	131	134	161	146
Manpower in Thousands Employed Working Population	12405	6895	19300	12412	6535	18947	12478	6578	19056	13033	6929	19962	13423	7411	20834
Indices	100	100	100	100	92	98	101	95	99	105	100	103	108	107	108

SOURCES : Nizard (A) - La Population Active. - In Population, INED, June, 1974.

The size of the working population has undergone a marked increase since 1962, although it had remained constant, and had even decreased, since the start of the century. However, if it increases in absolute value, it is diminishing when compared with the age group of 18 - 64 years. In 1964, workers had the burden of twenty-one inhabitants; in 1972, this figure increased to twenty-five.

Furthermore, the growth in the working population from 1946 until 1972 is partly due to the arrival in France of immigrant workers. Between 1946 and 1972, immigration accounted for one third of the population. The number of immigrants entering France since 1946, and working in 1972 is approximately 2.1 million. From 1946 to 1972, the number of working persons increased by identical proportions.

Since 1946, the statistics show a considerable development in the distribution of the working population in the three major sectors. In 1946, 34% of the working population were employed in the primary sector; in 1972, only 14% remained. The primary sector includes the following activities:- agriculture, forestry, fishing and extractive industries. The two other sectors have benefitted from this decrease in the size of the working population, which is mainly agricultural. The secondary sector accounted for 30% of the working population in 1946, 37% in 1962, and 38% in 1972. After this steady rise, the number of workers in the secondary sector came to a standstill. Forming a part of this sector, economic activities brought about the regrouping of processing industries, Public Works and Buildings. The tertiary sector has witnessed a steady growth in their number of workers: 35% in 1946, 40% 1962, and 47% in 1972. In this sector, the number of women employed has increased more rapidly than that of men. This last sector includes: transport, public and private services, the army, water, gas and electricity services.

TABLE IV Working population according to socio-professional group.

Socio-Professional Group	Manpower (in thousands)			Index (Based on 100 in 1954)	
	1954	1962	1968	1962	1968
Agriculturists	3 966	3 045	2 464	77	62
Paid farm-workers	1 161	826	584	71	50
Heads of trade and industry	2 301	2 045	1 955	89	85
Varied upper-class professions	554	766	995	138	180
Middle class	1 113	1 501	2 006	135	180
Employees	2 068	2 396	2 996	116	145
Workers	6 490	7 061	7 706	109	119
Admin. staff	1 018	1 047	1 166	103	115
Artists, Clergy, Army, Police.	614	564	526	91	85
TOTAL	19 285	19251	20398	100	106

SOURCES : NIZARD (A). "La Population active." In Population, June 1974.

This table clearly shows : (1) The rapidly decreasing number of agriculturists and the even greater decrease in paid farm-workers between 1954 and 1968. This trend is becoming more pronounced. (2) The drop in the number of heads of trade and industry. Above all, these include the small trader and craftsman and the decline of these workers correspond with the decline of these categories. (3) The size of other groups is increasing. The upper and middle class professions have almost doubled in size.

TABLE V Volume of gross national product annual rate of growth in %.

COUNTRY	AVERAGE 1960-1965	AVERAGE 1965-1972	1971	1972	1973
E.E.C. (1)	5.3	4.9	3.5	4.1	6.
Including: France	5.	5.7	5.5	5.5	6.3
Belgium	5.1	4.7	3.5	5.4	6.1
Italy	5.3	4.9	1.4	3.1	5.9
Netherlands	5.	5.3	4.3	4.5	4.5
United (2) Kingdom	3.3	2.4	1.4	3.5	5.4
Germany	5.	4.2	2.7	3.	5.4
United-States	4.8	3.6	3.2	6.1	5.9
Japan	10.1	10.8	6.2	9.7	11.

(1) E.E.C. : six until 1972 : France, Belgium, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Germany.
Nine from 1973 : the six mentioned above plus Denmark, Ireland and the United-Kingdom.

(2) For the United-Kingdom, reference is made to the Gross Internal Product which, unlike the Gross National Product, does not include the revenue from invoices payable by foreing countries, whilst the revenue of internal invoices is not deducted.

SOURCES : O.E.C.D., E.E.C. and national sources. In : Les Comptes de la Nation de l'année 1973, INSEE, Part II : Les Tableaux Commentés.

TABLE VI Industrial production : Annual variation in%.

COUNTRY	AVERAGE 1960-1972	1971	1972	1973
E.E.C. (1)	5.8	3.2	5.3	8.4
comprising: France	6.1	6.0	7.5	7.9
Belgium	4.8	3.0	5.8	5.5
Italy	6.3	0.	4.0	9.2
Netherlands	7.3	7.0	8.5	7.8
Germany	5.3	2.0	3.9	7.5
United-Kingdom	2.5	0.	2.0	8.0
United-States	4.7	0.	8.0	9.3
Japan	12.0	3.0	7.0	18.0

(1) E.E.C. : Six until 1972 : France, Belgium, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Germany.
Nine from 1973 : the six mentioned above plus Denmark, Ireland and United-Kingdom.

SOURCES : O.E.E.C. : In : Les Comptes de la Nation de l'année 1973.
INSEE, Part II : Les Tableaux Comentés.

TABLE VII Consumer price : Annual increase in %.

COUNTRY	AVERAGE 1960-1973	1971	1972	1973
France	4.5	5.5	5.9	7.3
Belgium	3.6	4.3	5.5	7.0
Italy	4.6	4.8	5.7	10.8
Netherlands	5.0	7.6	7.8	8.0
Germany	3.4	5.3	5.5	6.9
United-Kingdom	5.1	9.4	7.1	9.2
United-States	3.2	4.3	3.3	6.2
Japan	6.2	6.1	4.5	11.7

SOURCES : OCDE, In : Les Comptes de la Nation de l'année 1973.
INSEE, Part II : Les Tableaux Commentés.

education

(a) Pre-elementary Education

Since the end of the 19th Century, there has been a steady growth in school attendance, being most pronounced since 1958. This reached an all-time high of 2 373 000 children at the start of the academic year in 1972, resulting in almost total scholastic attendance between the ages of 4 - 5 year (except in certain rural districts).

(b) Primary Education

Primary schooling was made compulsory in 1881. Thus the statistics available show only major changes. From 1920 to 1930, one can see a fall in numbers, which picks up again in the following fifteen years. This is followed by another drop in 1950, which recovers until 1958, when yet another pronounced decrease is recorded, caused by the transfer of final year pupils from primary schools to secondary schools.

(c) Secondary Education

After remaining at a prolonged standstill during the 19th Century and up until 1920, the number of pupils increased rapidly during the years 1930 - 1950, owing to a considerably larger allocation of funds (1932). From 545 000 in 1950, the number tripled to 1 747 000 by 1958. Since then, the increase in numbers has been outstanding, as the annual growth is comparable with the total growth between the years 1798 and 1940. For the first time ever, the academic year, 1973/1974, witnesses a greater volume of pupils in Primary education than in its secondary counterpart.

(d) University Education

The number of university students increased gradually throughout the 19th Century and the first half of the 20th Century, but then gave way to a sharp rise during the last ten years, although 1973 and 1974 have been witness to a complete standstill in numbers.

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Academic population and its evolution since 1900.

LEVELS	1900	1930	1950	1958-1959	1965-1966	1972-1973
Pre-elementary (a)	700 000	510 000	1 226 000	1 335 000	1 778 000	2 373 000
Primary (b)	5 498 000	5 112 000	4 137 000	5 792 000	5 706 000	4 756 000
Secondary (c)	163 000	243 000	545 000	1 717 000	3 074 000	4 661 000
Higher (d)	28 000	78 000	139 000	222 000	435 000	770 000

SOURCES : Delion (A.). - L'Education en France. - Paris, Documentation francaise, 1973, Extracts from table XII - XIII.

TABLE IX Number of establishments (State Education).

ESTABLISHMENTS	1967-1968	1970-1971	1972-1973
Nursery schools	7711	9336	10.588
Primary schools	59.937	55.326	51.937
Establishments of Secondary level : including:-			
Secondary Modern Schools	3167	2119	1744
Secondary Schools	876	1898	2426
Technical Schools	1082	1136	1198
Grammar Schools	1244	1159	1142
TOTAL	6269	6312	6510

SOURCES : Tableaux de l'Education Nationale. - Ministry of Education, Service d'informations économiques et statistiques, 1974.

TABLE X Evolution, in categories of establishment of teaching staff - state education (full-time).

Units of one thousand.

	1967-1968	1970-1971	1972-1973
Pre-elementary Education	36 716	43 237	48 670
Elementary Education	177 777	184 326	182 049
Special Education	10 780	13 522	15 422
Secondary Modern School	30 825	30 355	27 112
Secondary School	23 333	62 039	80 494
Technical School	24 620	34 386	37 858
Grammar School	67 215	72 839	73 017
TOTAL	371 266	440 704	464 017

TABLE XI Higher education. Assessment of the disciplines in universities and university institutes of technology.

YEARS DISCIPLINES	1965-1966	1972-1973
Sciences	27.5%	16.4%
Arts	33.5%	34.6%
Law and Economic Sciences	21%	22.7%
Medicine and Dentistry	15%	18.1%
Pharmacy	3%	3.5%
University Institutes of Technology	0%	4.7%

SOURCES : DELION (A). - L'Education en France. - Paris, Documentation francaise, 1973. p. 107.

Between the years 1965 and 1972, the volume of Science students has come to a standstill in actual numbers, but has decreased in percentage. Conversely, the volume of Arts students has decreased slightly in percentage, whilst its actual numbers are growing. Those belonging to the faculties of Medicine and Dentistry, and Pharmacy are growing both in numbers and percentage; this is also the case in the faculties of Law and Economic Sciences, although to a lesser degree.

TABLE XII Development of private education in the French educational system since 1960.

LEVELS YEARS	Pre-elementary	Elementary	Secondary
1960	14.3%	16%	25.9%
1965	15.2%	14.6%	23.8%
1970	14.6%	13.8%	20.5%
1972	13.9%	14.1%	20.0%

SOURCES : DELION (A). - L'Education en France. - Paris la Documentation francaise, 1973. p. 45.

TABLE XIII Evolution of budget of national education - comparison with the cross national product.

Units in millions of current francs.

YEARS	G.N.P.	BUDGET OF N.E.	N.E. BUDGET AS % OF G.N.P.
1959	272619	6072.3	2.2%
1960	301 578	6946.8	2.3%
1965	489 834	15096.0	3.1%
1970	820150	26106.2	3.2%
1973	1 123 000	36081.6	3.2%

SOURCES : INSEE, In Tableaux de l'Education Nationale. - Ministry of Education, Service d'informations économiques et statistiques, 1974.

The National Budget for Education has risen sharply. Between the 1959 and the 1970 budget, it has increased by 285%. This progression has been accelerating since 1962.

The National Education absorbed 3.2% of the G.N.P. in 1973, whereas this was only 2.2% in 1969.

The Civil Service Budget is 32.28 thousand million; the Budget for appurtenances was 3.80 thousand million in 1973. The 1973 Budget for the Civil Service was divided up into 82.8% for personnel remuneration, 10.2% for running costs and 7% for social work.

TABLE XIV Recapitulatory table of financial complements

	1972	1973
Central Administration	3 907	4 091
Consortium for Public Purchasing (S.G.A.M.)	680	680
Academic and Departmental Services:		
Management and inspection personnel;	1 706	
Administrative, technical, supervisory and secretarial personnel in educational establishments.	123 512	132 681
Universities and Observatories	40 248	
Major establishments of University Education :		61 443
University colleges;		
The French Institute;		
Medical Academy.	5 621	
Technical staff in Higher Education	13 747	
Elementary Education	246 830	252 457
Establishments of Secondary Education	292 161	303 834
Teacher Training Establishments	46 349	45 479
Libraries	4 740	4 975
TOTAL	779 501	805 640

This list does not include the personnel mentioned below, who, in 1973, totalled the following :-

- State education personnel paid through non-individualised accounts (supply-teachers, part-time instructors...) 31 163
- Private education personnel under contract; 86 876
- Personnel of public establishments (eg. National Centre of Scientific Research - C.N.R.S., etc.), whose employees appear in the Budget; 29 541
- Personnel of public establsihments (Administrative authorities and Public Works personnel, and university staff) not appearing in the Budget 14 687

Thus the entire personnel paid by the Ministry of Education can be estimated at around 965 000.

Mme M. Petitgand,
Headmistress,
Lycée Hector
Berlioz,
Vincennes

II - DECISION MAKING POWERS OF MAIN ADMINISTRATIVE BODIES

This description can be made from two opposite points of view. The second allows us to follow the movement which has been developing since the administrative reorganisation which began in 1964, and enables us to avoid the cliché of the "Napoleonic system".

We can then consider:

(a) a centralising movement which unifies and channels educational administration from the Ministry of National Education - central services - to the educational institution (school, college, lycée - a grammar-type school). The decision-making powers seem to cover an ever narrower field as one descends the hierarchy from the Minister to the Head of the educational unit, the school. This is, of course, the aspect which is considered to typify the French system.

(b) a movement which tends nowadays to form a network, wherein the primacy of the "relational" is added to the move towards autonomy on the part of the educational units. Here at every intersection of the network the decision-making power would be clearly defined; it would not be based simply on the hierarchy of the posts involved, but on objectives which would vary from the need to ensure the cohesion of the system - particularly by the reduction of tensions - and here we must appreciate the value of the strict execution of the tasks entrusted to one, to the duty of ensuring the progress of the whole of the educational system towards the realisation of educational goals, more or less clearly defined, more or less conscious, amongst those engaged in educational administration.

That being the case, it will not prove easy to describe the typical French administrator. We must note:

(a) that the administrative authorities at regional level and in the schools all come originally from the main body of teachers. This is the only administrative body in France where this common origin has been maintained by the force of a strong academic tradition (we shall see that the Minister is a politician, and that only the civil administrators are trained in the general administration of the public sector).

(b) that the "teacher" in France, because of the regulations governing the Civil Service, enjoys a highly protective legal status. This protection is particularly significant in so far as it concerns freedom of opinion and beliefs, and is important for the administrator who is an ex-teacher.

(c) his origins (teaching), and this protection, can give rise in the administrator to a certain irresponsibility towards the organisation and the management of the educational community (does he not all too often limit himself to routine paper work?). He also sometimes retains a professorial attitude, not realising that his job is not to pass on his learning or to facilitate the passing on of knowledge, but to achieve a certain number of goals which go far beyond the concern for "education". (to inform, and to give instructions).

(d) should we not see, in the statements of the present Minister, who, exceptionally, is not only a politician, but a "teacher", having been through the mill and gradually climbed to the top, an attempt to solve these problems? There is talk of "bringing administration up to date", by developing the autonomy of educational establishments (which implies a strengthening of decision-making powers at this level, and a reaffirmation of the responsibility of the administrator), by bringing the administrator closer to those who use his services.

"Headmasters", explained René Haby, "should also undertake the task of guiding their younger colleagues, instead of passing their time filling in forms".

Powers and duties of the central administration

In France the running of educational administration, as well as the drawing up of the pedagogical plan which determines its actions, is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education.

At present there is:

- a Secretary of State for Universities (independent from the Ministry of Education as such) responsible for higher education.
- a Secretary of State for nursery education and social welfare (significantly, this post is held by a woman) - who is directly responsible to the Minister.

Here we shall only concern ourselves with the Ministry of Education.

the Minister and his staff

According to the 1958 constitution, ministers are appointed by presidential decree on the advice of the Prime Minister.

- Ministers are collectively responsible for the general policies of the Government. The Minister of Education, like the other ministers, has, however, a limited province in which he exercises personal responsibility. It should be noted that the present Minister is not a "politician", but has been in education all his life, so that here the word "province" takes on its full meaning.

- the ministerial staff is made up of personalities who are often politicians, chosen by the Minister, and who have ties of loyalty to him. (The ministerial staff lose their jobs with the departure of the Minister when the latter ceases his functions).

Their number and their posts are governed by an official governmental text.

powers and duties

It is up to the Minister, within the framework of the Government's policy, to define his aims and priorities. When the latter concern the legislative, he presents his proposals to Parliament, who vote the necessary laws. Thus in the spring the French parliament will consider an "orientation law" intended to modernise the French educational system.

(a) The Minister signs the decrees within his province after discussions within the Council of Ministers, and signature by the Prime Minister and the President.

(b) Where his own departments are concerned, the Minister has statutory powers, (publication of decrees, circulars, instructions and departmental notices. Published in the "Bulletin Officiel" of the Ministry of Education and assembled in a collection of laws and regulations, these texts go down the hierarchical ladder and eventually reach Heads and Deputy heads of educational establishments) and hierarchical authority to enforce his directives.

(c) He appoints civil servants to the jobs in his departments by delegation of authority from the Prime Minister (A good example of the application of the principle of authority, which clearly demonstrates the degree of formality involved, when one considers that the Ministry of Education is responsible f.. 800, 000 civil servants) and has disciplinary authority to deal with offences on the part of the civil servants.

(d) The Minister has ultimate responsibility for his budget, with the power to undertake, settle and pay expenses in his own field (within the limits of the budget voted by the Parliament).

Such expenditure is checked by a senior official acting as the Minister's financial adviser. The payment of expenditure undertaken is made by another official from the Ministry of Finance, who is a senior accountant in the Treasury.

The importance, both in their number and their contents, of decrees should be noted: "In the hierarchy of legislative texts, the decree comes between a law and an order. It can be passed in different forms, with or withour consultation of various administrative bodies; it may or may not have statutory status, according to whether its effects are general or particular".*

In France, the decree is the main text governing the field of education. Laws relating to education voted by Parliament are most often "outline bills or orientation laws", determining very general aims - equality of opportunity - or more precise and particular aims - raising the school leaving age to 16. Within this framework, the Minister decides the necessary practical measures needed to put the law into practice.

One should also note:

(a) the importance of the supreme authority (bearing total responsibility for his sector). This accounts for the influence of all these administrative texts on the actions of those engaged in the education service, who are constantly either concerned with the problem of conforming to the letter (if not to the spirit) of the regulations, or else use the texts as a pretext for lack of any initiative or innovation on their part.

(b) the presence of a financial controller - this type of organisation is characteristic of French law - whom one finds doing a similar job at the level of the educational institution. Alongside the Head of the institution, resposible for working out his expenses within the framework of the budget he has presented, one finds an administrative bursar, who is not responsible to the Head of the institution or the 'conseil d'administration' (the school's governing body), but to the Ministry of Education.

This explains that the demand for greater initiative and the desire for autonomy (with the necessary controls, of course) takes the form of ever more forceful claims, both within the conseils d'administration of secondary schools and amongst the principal users of the services of the Ministry of Education. Not because there is any crisis of authority, but because the general trend in educational circles is towards a greater participation of individuals in the decision-making and in the exercising of responsibility.

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* J. Minot

Functioning of Central Services of the Ministry

From the beginning, in spite of three major reforms (Liberation, 1964, 1970) this organisation is structured vertically:

General directorates;
Directorates
Assistant directorates
Departments

Directors

The Directors hold certain public offices. The holders of these offices are appointed by the French president after consultation with the Council of Ministers. (It should be noted that these Directors keep their original grade if they are already in the Civil Service, or their previous rank if they come from some other body.)

Deputy Directors

The Deputy Directors and Assistant Directors also fill a post, but are civil servants coming from the mainstream supplying all ministries and from the ENA (National School of Administration). This mainstream comprises civil administrators, responsible for the organisation and the smooth running of the departments. (Assisted by attachés, administrative secretaries, and the main body of employees of various kinds, who are also recruited by competitive examinations, in addition to possessing the necessary paper qualifications.) The presence of these specialists in administration poses numerous problems. Firstly their role is often misunderstood by the public, who, in their judgement of them, confuse "technical" with "technocrat". Moreover, those who "administer" at schools level, teachers, parents, and even the pupils, oppose their personal knowledge of the school situation - a knowledge born of personal experience - to the deductive truth, backed by statistics, of the 'man from the Ministry'. It is said that the latter divorce of the school from "real life", which gives rise to a basic distrust of all the ideas coming from the bureaucrats. (These civil servants are not however alone in running the central services. There are also a certain number of auxiliaries (experts of all kinds) and employees from outside departments and from the teaching profession: about 3,000 in all.)

It is worth noting that here we see a certain blurring, as well as a reduction, of the limits imposed on the decision-making powers of these bodies.

In fact, the only decision-making authority in the field of educational administration that we have so far met is that of the Minister (His Directors, when they exercise such authority, do so by delegation from the Minister).

This leads us to question the meaning we attach to the word "administer", so as to avoid ambiguity.

Among those that we at present call "Administrators" there are those who issue orders and directives: the Minister, of whom we have spoken; the Recteur (the Minister's representative in the 'Académie' - an educational region with university facilities); the Inspecteur d'Académie (the Recteur's representative in each 'département' - the unit of local administrative control); the Head of a school or college. It is generally accepted that the latter also have the authority to make decisions, but in reality is their authority independent of that of the Minister? Secondly there are those who organise, co-ordinate and supervise, mainly members of the various departments.

These then are the two kinds of administrator, and it is important to distinguish between them when considering the decision-making power at the level of the various administrative bodies in France. (Obviously the two functions sometimes co-exist in the same person.)

APPENDIX: CONSULTATIVE BODIES ADVISING THE MINISTER

A - General Inspectorate

The body of 'Inspecteurs Généraux' (correspond more or less to our HMI), directly responsible to the Ministry, was set up during the Premier Empire. Their role has never been seriously redefined since, but there has been a slight change of emphasis. There has been a move away from the role of inspection as such - (i.e. supervising the application of government policies throughout the country, and evaluating the performance of teachers in State schools) towards an advisory and organising role: advisers able to help the Minister in matters of management, administration and pedagogy; advisers of the teachers and educators of various kinds whom they are supposed to inspect; organisers when the Inspecteurs organise courses, study groups or think-tanks intended both for the consultation of the users of educational institutions as well as for in-service training of teachers and administrators. (Remember that no system of 'formation permanente' - continuous vocational training - for the latter has been formally set up by the Ministry of Education).

The Inspecteurs Généraux draw up reports (which are communicated to those concerned) and inform the Minister directly of their actions.

There are two bodies of Inspecteurs Généraux:

(1) concerned with pedagogy. According to the official division of subjects (specialisation of Inspecteurs) their role involves supervision of teachers in the classroom; drawing up of syllabi and chairing the committees which choose examination subjects; and participation in the recruitment of teachers.

(2) concerned with administration in the strict sense of the word: administrative, financial, accountancy and economic control of all departments and staff; educational organisation in the field of equipment, where the construction, renovation, or fitting out of premises is concerned; and the day to day organisation of the school, evaluating the "life" of the school community, its dynamism, its unity, its efficiency; in co-operation with certain leisure organisations, the organisation of out-of-school activities.

The evolution of the role of the Inspecteur has already been mentioned. In fact this evolution has been speeded up by the abundant criticism which has developed on the subject since 1968, and which comes not only from teachers, Heads (themselves subject to the Inspectorate of "school life"), bursars (dependent on the Inspectorate of Administration). The Minister himself is aware of the malaise. Firstly, he deplores the diversity of the body of inspectors. The various categories could be regrouped to obtain a greater efficiency from a pedagogical point of view. (It is true that the diversity of the various categories is another characteristic of the French system). Secondly the Minister would like to regionalise the General Inspectorate, so that it might formulate its doctrines in a realistic way according to the conditions of life and studies of our pupils, and to their needs.

B - Le Conseil Superieur de l'Education (Higher Council for Education)

Under the chairmanship of the Minister.

Composition: Three groups of 25 members

(1) administrative representatives from the Ministry of Education

(2) representatives of administrative bodies and competent personalities concerned with educational questions

(3) elected members of the teaching profession

Role:

consultative: the Minister refers the major options of his policies to the Council (but the Minister has the final word in any decision making)

jurisdictional: particularly in matters of discipline.

C - Other Councils

- council of higher education and research (CNESER) set up in accordance with the 'orientation law' of 1968
- council of general and technical education
- council of youth, of 'popular' education and of leisure

D - Commissions

- national professional commissions responsible for the contents of technical diplomas
- national administrative commissions made up of equal numbers of the various categories of personnel (promotion, reports on teachers, transfers, etc. ...)

Powers and Duties of Regional Administration

Where education is concerned, the administrative division in France is the Académie. The limits of the Académie are those of a "région" (an administrative unit in France grouping several départements) or part of a région. Each of the 26 Académies is administered by a Recteur, assisted by as many Inspecteurs d'Académie as there are departments within the Académie.

Originally, the Recteurs and Inspecteurs d'Académie were the representatives of the Minister, responsible for passing on and carrying out his directives at the local level; they still constitute this supervisory authority with the power to supervise and if necessary to correct decisions taken by the autonomous bodies, in this case the State educational establishments, for example, where financial administration is concerned (approval of the budget presented by the Head, and voted by the Conseil d'administration), or in the case of pedagogical organisation (approval of staff timetables).

In this respect one should note how, with successive reforms of the organisation of the Ministry and the general trend of ideas which emphasizes the efficiency and opportuneness in the modern world, of decentralisation an regionalisation, the Recteurs are seeing their field of responsibility widened, which necessarily results in a noticeable increase in the Recteur's staff. Similarly, an evolution is taking place in the role of the Inspecteurd'Académie resident in the chief town of each département. His powers, already extensive in the field of primary education, are increasing in the field of secondary education, particularly when he facilitates the development of co-operation based on the Conseils d'administration of the schools.

The Recteur

The Recteur is a senior civil servant, appointed by a decree approved by the Council of Ministers. In his Académie he is the representative of the Minister; he is responsible for all matters for which the Ministry of Education is responsible.

He exercises the following powers in primary and secondary education:

(a) pedagogical and financial supervision of primary and secondary schools. Distribution of subsidies from a global sum allotted to him on a regional basis. Planning of new schools and their distribution within his Académie. Opening and closing of schools.

(b) appointment of primary school teachers and certain other categories of personnel (particularly auxiliary personnel). It is he who distributes the teaching posts which are allotted to him on an Académie basis amongst the various schools.

(c) approval of the departmental proposals concerning grants.

(d) supervision of the teaching given in private schools subsidised by the State.

In higher education the Recteur is the Chancellor of the Universities in his Académie. (The Chancellory is a public body with legal status and financial autonomy.)

The Inspecteur d'Académie

Amongst all the departmental heads in the département, the Inspecteur d'Académie is conspicuous by the fact that he is not under the jurisdiction of the Préfet, who is, in fact, the only representative of the Government in the département. Indeed, the Inspecteur d'Académie represents a regional authority responsible only to the Minister of Education, and he acts within his département by delegation of authority from the Recteur. However, his actions within the département constantly interact with those of the Préfet and of the local authorities (particularly those of the communes). Indeed, the law gives the Préfet the power to intervene in many circumstances which involve the field of education, especially at the level of the département's Council of primary education and technical education, important consultative bodies presided by the Préfet. Consequently the powers and duties of an Inspecteur d'Académie are not only difficult to define but equally delicate to exercise.

Here one could say that the qualities of the "man" (importance of personal contact and of dialogue) are more important than those of the administrator. The controversy over the need to maintain this office at département level, in so far as the Inspection Académique might be considered as a simple relay linking the Heads of schools to the Recteur and the Minister, now seems to have been forgotten. Moreover, since then the Inspecteur d'Académie has acquired the role of organiser in the training of personnel destined to exercise real responsibility: thus he presides over the "teams of organisers of school life" appointed to every Recteur in the Académies in order to help in the initial and in-service training of Heads, Vice-principals and senior teachers.

The Inspectorate, whatever its nature and function, is developing towards an organising role.

APPENDIX: THE CONSULTATIVE BODIES ADVISING THE REGIONAL AUTHORITIES INSPECTORS

A) Specialised Inspectors assist the Recteur.

They are:

(a) Principal Inspector of Technical Education to the Recteur - the latter can delegate to him the right to sign in his name - responsible for the co-ordination, organisation and supervision of technical education within the Académie. He is a civil servant recruited, like the Inspecteur d'Académie and the Regional Pedagogical Inspectors, after inscription on a list of eligibility, from amongst teachers with the "agrégation", with a doctorate, or Heads of Lycées.

(b) Regional Pedagogical Inspectors (who have the rank of Inspecteur d'Académie) are delegated a speciality by the General Inspectorate, and give teaching advice to teachers, particularly to auxiliary teachers. They report on their work to the Recteur himself.

(c) Chief Inspector for Youth and Sport, and

(d) Careers Advice Inspectors who liaise between the departments and the personnel of the Ministry of Education, and those belonging to the Under-Secretaries' departments or parallel bodies such as ONISEP (National Office for Information on Teaching and the Professions).

B) The Inspecteur d'Académie has also, on a département level:

(a) an Inspector of Technical Education, and

(b) Departmental Inspectors of National Education (IDEN),

responsible for primary education, the organisation of the schools network, and the inspection of the teachers themselves.

Councils

There is a distinct parallelism between the local and the national councils.

(a) Conseil Académique, with authority in secondary education, has administrative, legal and disciplinary functions (see Conseil Supérieur de l'Education)

(b) Councils and Commissions of the Académie:

la carte scolaire (the map indicating existing and planned new schools); grants; commissions of the Académie made up of equal numbers of members (promotion, reports on teachers, lists of eligibility of all staff)

(c) Councils and Commissions of the Département (normally presided over by the Préfet).

The School, Basic Element in the Educational System

Types of State Schools

Let us first distinguish types of school: There are three: primary, secondary and higher education.

(There is a Secretary of State for pre-school education, responsible for the "maternelle" - a kind of nursery school for children aged from two to six - which till 1974 was part of the primary sector, and which is not compulsory).

Let us also distinguish between State schools and private schools (some of which are State subsidised. They sometimes accept State scholarship pupils, and part of their teaching staff are paid by the State. But they retain a genuine autonomy). On the contrary the life of State schools is entirely determined by the public authorities, political and administrative.

This allows us to understand the functioning and the difficulties of primary schools in particular.

Primary School

Since 1833, every commune must possess a school (let us note in passing that the laws making schooling obligatory, secular, and free were passed in 1881-1882). Today we see the effects of grouping amongst the communes, since no primary school may be run with less than five classes. There are approximately 60,000 primary schools, which cater for seven million children who at present begin at the age of six (five with special permission), and remain there five years. (There are at present plans to begin primary schooling for all children at five, and to increase its duration to six years).

Primary school teachers are known as "instituteurs". (They have their baccalauréat and a "certificat d'aptitude pédagogique" - a certificate entitling them to teach in primary schools). Some are trained at "écoles normales d'instituteurs" - training school for primary school teachers - to be found in the chief towns of the départements, and which now only provide a teacher's training course (no longer giving a general education from the fourth form of secondary schools on). The administrators are Headmasters coming

from the main body of primary school teachers after eight years service. The schools are inspected by the education Inspectors for the departement.

For a long time the primary school was known familiarly as the "commune" school. This indicates that it has no autonomy, and that its Head's job is exclusively one of teaching. The school is a service of the commune of which the Mayor holds the purse strings; the Municipal Council is the deliberative body; and the municipal tax-collector is the chief accountant. Estimates of expenditure are included in the budget of the commune; and the communes are expected to be responsible for the maintenance and the running of the school.

In the present state of affairs it is impossible to lay down hard and fast guide-lines for development of the primary school, and this causes difficulties which are both pedagogical and relational (role of parents who exercise a genuine influence on both the Head and the Mayor of the commune, and can affect decisions by a regrettable display of parochialism) or financial (communes complain of the heavy financial burden placed on local authorities by central government, particularly at a time when education is expensive - cost of books and materials, upkeep etc.).

The appearance in 1974, when ministerial departments were being reorganised of a Directorate for Schools (distinct from the Directorate for colleges on the one hand, and for Lycées on the other) will doubtless soon cause us to reconsider the system of administration of the primary school.

Secondary School

Efforts have been made over the last ten years to create a single school up to the age of 16. Until quite recently, after primary school, which really was a single school from six to eleven, teaching branched out into sectors of unequal value which prepared pupils for quite distinct futures.

Now democratisation of teaching has led to the creation of a special kind of multilateral school capable of accepting all children from 11 to 15, namely the "collèges d'enseignement secondaire" (CES) - colleges of secondary education.

The 'carte scolaire' (map showing distribution of schools) determines where schools should be built, taking into consideration population changes, urbanisation, industrialisation, etc. The sector is the basic subdivision (1 CES per 1,000 inhabitants). Districts group several sectors around one or several lycées and technical schools which offer the widest choice of options.

(1) CES

Schools providing the "first cycle" in secondary education, the collèges d'enseignement secondaire, at present accept pupils from the age of 11 for a period of four years:

6th	)	'observation cycle'
5th	)	
4th	)	'orientation cycle'
3rd	)	

The 'carte scolaire' tends to make CES out of the existing schools ("first cycle" years of lycées or ex-collèges d'enseignement général - colleges of general education).

(a) From the outset these schools are set up on the legal basis of municipal schools, functioning like the primary schools described above.

- the communes build them (offering the land, seeing to their construction and equipment - sometimes getting State aid for this) and see to the maintenance of the school of which they are the owners.

- the staff, from the Head - called the Principal - down, have only pedagogical responsibility, seeing nevertheless to the implementation of the official agreement between the Minister of Education and the Mayor, which stipulates the mutual responsibilities of the two parties.

(b) But since 1972, it is no longer the municipal model but the nationalised one which prevails, and the municipal schools are gradually being taken over by the State. A college is 'nationalised' when it has an official independent legal status and financial autonomy. The running of the school is no longer the responsibility of the municipality alone: a State subsidy covers 64% of the total budget, the rest being found by the local authority. It is no longer the municipal tax-collector who manages the finances, but a Bursar, an accountant responsible for public funds. At the end of the campaign of nationalisation, there should no longer be any municipal secondary schools.

2) Lycee and CET (Technical school)

The "second cycle" schools consist of: the lycée (classical and modern; technical; and multilateral) or a technical school - CET.

Here again we see the continuation of the old structures like municipal or State financed lycées, and technical schools which take pupils at the age of fourteen and prepare them over a period of three years for a "certificat d'aptitude professionnell" (CAP) - a certificate in vocational studies, crafts, etc. - thus removing these pupils from the sphere of the CES.

In fact, the lycée and the CET are State schools: that is to say they are wholly financed by State funds. They may not receive subsidies from any other source except under the heading of "gifts and legacies".

Powers and Duties of Headmasters

The Headmaster ('Proviseur' for a lycée, 'Principal' for a CES, 'Directeur' for a CET) is responsible to the Minister and the heads of the Académie (Recteur and Inspecteur d'Académie) for all aspects of the running of the school. He is, therefore, responsible for the pedagogical and financial administration of the school.

(1) He supervises the application of the existing legislation, implements the decisions of higher authorities, executes the resolutions of the Conseil d'Administration which are executory in accordance with the decree of 8th November 1968. He takes any emergency measures necessary to safeguard persons and property.

All staff working in the school are subordinate to him in the execution of their duties; all proposals and decisions concerning them, and emanating from a higher authority, are transmitted through him. He is in charge of the registration of pupils, both day-pupils and boarders.

He represents the school in all legal matters. He may lodge complaints with the police. With the agreement of the Ministry, and after consultation with the Conseil d'Administration, he may bring a legal action.

(2) He sees that the best use is made of the means at his disposal. With this in mind, he organises all aspects of the life of the school: pedagogy, education, information, careers guidance, economic management and security. He organises and supervises the various activities which are carried out by the teaching staff and ancillary staff of the school, as well as by the pupils and their parents in certain spheres of the life of the school. He does this with the assistance of various councils within the school. He liaises with the various authorities and personalities.

(3) He supervises the accounts of the school.

In charge of the purse strings, he presents for the approval of the Conseil d'Administration, and implements, the school's budget. He has the authority to incur expenditure. By his signature he is held responsible for the recording and the settlement of fees and revenue, as well as the issuing of the corresponding receipts, and for the incurring, the recording, the settlement and the authorisation of expenditure.

He signs the accounts.

In the lycées, a Vice-Principal assists the Head in all duties except in matters concerning the school's budget. He is, in particular, responsible for:

(1) the presentation of information concerning the administrative situation of pupils;

(2) the drawing up of timetables both for staff and pupils, and for room allocation;

(3) the drawing up and the presentation of information concerning the teaching and supervisory staff;

(4) the reporting of wear and tear;

(5) the safeguard and utilisation of teaching equipment.

The Vice-Principal replaces the Head in case of absence; however, he cannot take decisions on the school's budget without special permission from the Minister. He can be put in charge, apart from financial matters, of the running of a pedagogical or educational unit, whether this be part of the school proper or an annexe.

In the CES, the Vice-Principal assists the Head, whose deputy he is, in the exercise of his pedagogical, educational and administrative functions.

He replaces as of right, except in financial matters, the Head of the CES, when the latter is away or ceases to exercise his function for a period of up to fifteen days. If the period exceeds fifteen days or if circumstances demand it, the designation of a replacement is the subject of an official order of the Recteur for a municipal CES, or of an order from the Ministry, which can also confer on him authority in financial matters, for a State financed CES.

Autonomy of Headmasters

It appears from various meetings and conferences that Headmasters in France want more authority in all areas, without being specific as to the limits of such autonomy, whose ambiguous nature is felt by many of them. This autonomy is apparently conferred by law (and we shall see an example of this when we attempt to define the powers and duties of the Conseil d'Administration in the schools), but in fact this autonomy is constantly being whittled away by central government, who send out directives and exercise control even in the field of pedagogical organisation.

The solution should doubtless be sought in a contractual situation which would divide the activities of Heads into three sectors:

(1) Syllabi, weekly timetables and allocation of staff. Here the central government would continue to make decisions, and the Head would carry these out with the means at his disposal (whilst still able to report on difficulties met).

(2) A sector where the Head would assume full responsibility under the law. He would not be accountable to anyone apart from the judicial authorities; this would include the admission and expelling of pupils (particularly full and day boarders), and the prerogative of the Head in matters of discipline within the school rules.

(3) The third sector is more difficult to define, for indeed no guidelines have been laid down here. We are concerned specifically with the autonomy of the school community defined as one of the means of achieving educational goals. Here, indeed, we must develop or set up:

(a) procedures for consultation and collegiate decision-making, determing the role and the duties of the Conseil d'Administration as a deliberative assembly, as opposed to the powers of the Head.

(b) the "autonomy" of the school, which would not be accountable to the authorities of the Académie, since each member of the collegiate bodies would be given genuine responsibility, bearing the consequences of his own decisions.

We have emphasised at the outset the excessive centralisation of the system, which appears, at each level, to deprive the members of the community of responsibility, by depriving them of the power to make decisions. This gives rise to numerous abuses: excessive demagogy, whether deliberate or unconscious, which is difficult to eradicate from the present system, or else a lack of concern for the end result, for the aims of education.

On the contrary, genuine decisions, whose implementation would be assessed by the families, colleagues, pupils, should instil in everyone an adult, responsible attitude. And would this not increase the prestige of the role of the Head?

The Conseil d'Administration

In all State secondary schools there is a Conseil d'Administration; one or several permanent committees (sub-committees of the Conseil d'Administration which can also function as a disciplinary committee); and class committees.

This Conseil d'Administration includes ex-officio members (people involved in the full-time administration and management of the school, together with a certain number of members of the local and regional authorities), elected members (representing the various categories of civil servant in the school, and in addition representatives of parents and pupils), and co-opted members (in schools of more than 600 pupils, co-opted for the interest they show in problems of education). The representatives of the administration represent one sixth of the constitutive members of the Conseil d'Administration.

The Conseil d'Administration is at one and the same time, for certain matters, a deliberative and a consultative body. This is where, when one tries to determine its duties, one comes up against certain ambiguities, and that conflict between the authority of the Headmaster, the Ministry, and the powers of the Conseil d'Administration tends to arise. At the moment there is not much room for manoeuvre.

One might wonder what, in the light of the way the schools are run (see above), the following provisions really mean:

- the Conseil d'Administration "takes the emergency measures necessary for the application of the regulations concerning security".
- it expresses its opinion on the setting up or abolition of sections or options, or requests for extra staff ..... the placing of pupils forced to leave the school before school leaving age".
- it votes the budget (!) and determines the financial details.
- the class committees examine pedagogical matters concerning the class, etc. .....

We can, then, presume that these texts will be amended in the light of the general plan of the reform bill, or rather the bill for modernising secondary education, if, as is thought, it will be inspired by three main principles.

(1) The adaptation of educational goals to the present-day world.

(2) Equality of opportunity.

(3) The need to introduce a large measure of student participation in the decision-making processes.

Now the adaptation of educational goals to the present-day world demands flexibility and a streamlining of systems at the schools level, particularly in financial matters.

Moreover, one could quote numerous examples where the setting up of precise pedagogical projects (within the guidelines of the national plan) would take place at schools level, with effective participation of all concerned, if only the systems and statutes which would allow genuine co-operation amongst those concerned were to be reformed or set up.

Conclusion

The technocratic trends claim that administrative decisions are the end product of a scientific process which obviously attaches an objective value to the latter which precludes all contestation. The role of the departments, from this point, appears to be determinative: they are not satisfied with

proposing, channelling and capitalising the informative data concerned with the education world but they will also go as far as fixing the contents of the teaching programmes and deciding on the educational patterns. Why is the choice of the aims and the methods used to attain these aims, not left to the men who have to put this policy into practice? They are equally capable of encouraging new ideas or repressing them later on if they pose any threat to this privileged system. Consequently, even the decision-making power, which is used every time a choice has to be made, implies a certain eventuality, it appears to be more concerned in the next phase: the application of administrative science. You must know in order to forecast and do.

However, everyone knows - and, indeed everyday experience proves - that there is a gap, or rather a solution of continuity between thought and action, and the administrator, in so far as he decides, and chooses to decide, is the "man of action". So, cannot the art of administration exist side by side with administrative science? At this point we touch on the problem of choice and the role played by decision makers, throughout this hierarchy that we have described, or to be more precise, by the directors and headmasters. So, we see the aforementioned described either as experts in administrative science or skilled in the art of administration, or, for that matter, both in leading the men underneath them and in attaining and carrying out their objectives, for they are particularly capable of implementing the physical and mental powers entrusted with applying the decisions of political strength and of adapting them in the best interests of the individual.

Now it seems, from the above account, that the study of administration and the training of the responsible director (even in the education sector which would appear to be outside this sphere) since the 19th century, in France, have been looked at from an exclusively juridicial angle: from this we have the importance which we have already stressed, with regard to the rule of the law, which summarises the duties and effectiveness of the director. Even the action, obedience to the rule, becomes a test of judgement: so the rule which the man in charge imposes on his subordinates, the rule which binds them together by virtue of the hierarchical power invested in him. (What is more this internal rule is therefore an essential element in the bureaucratic structure.) We have, undoubtedly then defined the "decision making powers" rather than the personal responsibility, and yet in our opinion, in the future we in France must undertake to determine these personal responsibilities, and, in an attempt to escape from the judicial primacy and the value of the hierarchy as it stands at the moment, even if the administration, because its aim is orientated towards concrete ideas - and in this alone it seems to be already escaping and making the best of opportunism, something which we cannot accept without reservation when it concerns education - it must above all implement these personal responsibilities. Here choice and training of a responsible administrator given this authority finds its true meaning; likewise, he must be able to fully understand every decision he is led to make. Now we take much pleasure in France, and this is recent, in stressing the importance of human science (over

and above any single law) in the acquisition of this administrative science and of this art of administration as strongly as the importance of the very people under this administrator, of the men who are not instruments of the action of power, but the end product of this action. There is nothing here that is an obviously new idea but, it is a good thing to repeat it, especially as we are applying it to the education system, for the administration of teaching establishments in France sets such a tremendously complex machine in motion that it often seems to ignore both the progress of the administrative science and law and the values which every educational innovation must aim at. The decision making power must therefore, in the last resort, be based solely on personal responsibility.

A de Peretti,
Director of
Research and
Teaching Methods.
INAS.

III COMMENTARY : THE PROBLEM OF INNOVATION

"An educational system as centralised as the French one inevitably leads to attempts at unusual innovations." These are spread out over a continuum which begins with an impulse of authoritarian reform and which leads to comparaitvely isolated efforts, but the multiplicity of which maintains relative flexibility in the various sections of the scholastic system.

On this continuum one must therefore distinguish between that which belongs to the teaching profession, that which comes under the jurisdiction of the establishments, that which is the property of specialised institutions of research, or of their members, and finally, that which reverts to the centralised authorities.

teachers

Fundamentally, teachers undertake, in a more or less united manner, either in small groups or on a more collective basis, modest schemes which introduce considerable flexibilities into the educational system. These schemes are usually concerned with the following spheres:-

1. Teaching innovations concerning the use of language (classes in spoken language and telephone procedures....).
2. Group work with various apparatus.
3. Re-distribution of pupils from different classes into new groups (called "niveau" (sets) or, more often, options), as a result of time-tables running parallel with classes. This regrouping is developing for an intradisciplinary education (Arts; Mathematics; Technology....) or multi-disciplinary activities.

This work often has recourse to dramatic manifestation.

4. Exercises in communication and encounter which result in the pupils building up a dialogue between themselves and the teachers.
5. Attitudes and procedures for non-supervision or semi-supervision, allowing a wide margin for initiative and decision-making in the part of the pupils.
6. The organisation of "independent study" in one or more disciplines.
7. The spontaneous organisation of different teachers with a view to probing their teachers problems.
8. Limited use of audio-visual facilities (tapes or films).
9. Educational trips abroad and foreign exchanges between schools.
10. The use of mini-computers in the teaching of Mathematics etc....

institutions

Within the framework of the institution, under the direct instigation of the heads of the above institution, one can see accomplishments alluding to school life and educational projects, whilst in liaison with the academic authorities.

1. The return of responsibility to the pupils, of the maintainance of order, hygiene and organisation ("Republique des eleves, avec "gouvernement", "Republique des sports").

2. Development of the role of class representatives elected by their friends.
3. The setting up of sex education classes (as a result of the publication of ministerial circulars).
4. Reorganisation of fifth-year classes (called "indifferences" (apathetic) by fifth-formers). A unit of 72 pupils is confined, for each discipline, to a team of 3 teachers.
5. Development of socio-educational centres and academic cooperatives including organisation of multiple clubs actuated by the pupils, the teachers, or a combination of both.
6. The participation of university students (as monitors of small groups of pupils, under the direction of mathematics teachers.
7. The innovation of methods of sanctions and of assessment in the institution.
8. Development of a documentary and information service within the establishments.
9. Organisation of free school periods for the pupils and the teachers. This accounts for 10% of school time; this is transmitted by official ruling to those involved on both sides, from the heart of the establishments. This 10% gave rise to numerous and widely varied local innovations, resulting from various administrative solutions. It has provoked controversy and opposition, mainly from certain teachers. A greater opportunity as regards the outside world was realised.

Certain cases of "spontaneous research" may be approved and given credit for extra teaching (from $\frac{1}{2}$ hour to 2 hours a week for a team of teachers).

The establishments are therefore said to be "in charge of experiments in one sector" and must render accounts of their innovations; they can benefit from methods of validation which are controlled by research organisations.

research agencies

In research bodies, if one examines the preoccupations of specialised innovators, those who work within, or as delegates of, the INRDP[1], the CIBEP[2], or the INAS[3], it becomes clear that the usual fields of exploration, as far as secondary education and the chosen establishments which enjoy special status (fully operational experimental establishments) are concerned, are:-

1. in the use of research methods for the teaching of history, geography and introductory economics.
2. in fundamental research relating to preception or to language, to linguistics and to grammar.
3. in the general problems of assessment and in the value of experimental teaching.
4. in the basic research into the concepts of interdiscipline.
5. in the objectives of entirely new scientific and technical advancement.
6. in the use of programme computers and calculators in the educational field.

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1. National Institute of Pedagogic Research and Documentation.
2. International Centre of Pedagogic Studies.
3. National Institute of Academic Administration.

7. in the widespread introduction of audio-visual methods and techniques into teaching, within experimental establishments.
8. in the renewed organisation of school time-tables (new arrangement of periods, re-distribution of the disciplines according to the class, etc...).
9. in experiments with a system of options in the first stage of secondary education.
10. in the integration of technical teaching into conventional and modern establishments, with a view to creating a polyvalent establishment.
11. in the parent/pupil surveys which are popular in experimental establishments.
12. in optional classes relating to family and social life.
13. in the use of an auto-documentation centre.
14. in the various experiments in the field of sculpture, biology, physics, modern languages, mathematics, etc....
15. in a practical definition of teaching programmes in terms of "savoir-faire" (know how) or "comment faire" (ability).
16. finally, in the essential research of adapted structures for the individualisation of education, and especially by team teaching.

ministerial level

Lastly there is the ministerial level, where special commissions are preparing new programme and organisation projects which set into motion, strengthen, or even diffuse the methods of innovation which could have been tried (and, in certain cases, proved valid) in class, in normal establishments or those of an experimental nature.

1. at the teaching levels, with the restoration of mathematics, the programmes have been forced to allow teaching to develop alongside teachers unions (IREM)[1] which has assured its members of re-training. An important development in class is the teaching of physics and French.
2. one must not forget the organisation of the first stage of secondary schooling, or in Secondary schools (CES), of the 'ecole moyenne' in France, bringing together teachers from different levels of education. This organisation, aiming at the democratisation of education, and effecting a school-leaving age of 16 years, is once more being reconsidered. A ministerial project forsees the introduction of a greater flexibility into the existing structure.
3. Sex education for certain classes as defined by the Ministry.
4. commissions have been set up to study the reorganisation of secondary education. This would be founded on inter-connected optional subjects for the pupils with a central core; and on a transformation of the "baccalaureat", which would necessitate continual assessment of pupils, accompanied by annual examinations (the 'baccalaureat' would lost its importance as a diploma giving automatic right of entry to all universities).
5. the founding of Pedagogic Centres for Teachers is anticipated: pedagogic training of teachers is almost non-existent in France. Such an institution would bring many problems of competence and credit to light.
6. one must keep in mind the means of facilitating innovation at its very base by the institution of the 10% abatement of class contact hours for research and the encouragement of "spontaneous research".

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1. Institute of Research into the Teaching of Mathematics.

As one can see from this concise list, initiative and impulsion occur at various hierarchical levels of decision. And one can establish recourse, whether it be to institutional bodies, to liberal and spontaneous organisations, or to the reciprocal coöperation of both, for the implementation of elaborate changes.

It is also equally evident that attempts at innovation occur in a relatively dispersed manner. This could appear to be at variance with the well-established centralisation of French education. It is, however, easily explained: centralisation does, in fact, involve great distances, and so the actual places of conception, of realisation and of control are widely separated. Consequently, impulses which were initially strong, tend to lose some of their energy and momentum; similarly, the important initiative which evolves from the same source, loses its powers of self-establishment, organisation and diffusion.

In this situation, foreign factors are negligible, and all information remains safely within a limited sphere. In France, reforms and revivals, like innovations, are subject to phenomena of inertia, the treatment for which however difficult - has the clear objective of major structural change."

Jennifer A Mundy,
Unit for Management
in the Public Services,
Sheffield Polytechnic

SOME PROBLEMS IN THE TEACHING OF EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

In England and Wales there has been considerable interest during the last few years in the development of management courses for those who hold senior positions in the education service.[1] Courses in educational administration have long been familiar, particularly in university departments of education, but, for the most part, these courses have been concerned with an academic presentation of the history and development of the administration of education rather than with the analysis, skills and techniques needed for effective management. Since the late 1960's, particularly in the polytechnics,[2] there has been developed an increasing number of education management courses.

increasing complexity of education

Trends in education in recent years have led to concern for the quality of management within the education service. The increasing size and complexity of schools and colleges, and the fact that for many years those called upon to lead in these situations came with little, if any, experience of managing within large institutions; the increasingly complex and often conflict-ridden environment within which schools have to operate, associated with a scarcity of resources and an emphasis upon accountability; the various structural changes (the comprehensive school movement, the trend towards middle schools, open-plan schools); the increased understanding of the complex web of factors involved in the transmission, realization and expression of knowledge; all have increased the strain upon managers within education, and made their response to these situations more visible.

Before outlining the problems faced in preparing education managers to meet these complexities it is important to stress two points:

1. In England there is no national provision for education management courses. Individual polytechnics, universities and colleges, sometimes in conjunction with the local advisory service, offer the courses they

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[1] For an account of this development see, WATSON, L.E., 'Tendances dans l'enseignement de la gestion de l'education en Angleterre et au Pays de Galles', Education et Gestion, 1974.

[2] A para-university institution with a focus on technical and applied studies.

think appropriate for those sections of the education sector to which they think they can be of help. The Department of Education and Science, and other bodies, also provide courses. Students are usually volunteers, not conscripts, and they are usually given financial support by their local education authorities. There are some signs, however, that LEAs and individual institutions are beginning to sponsor people they select for management courses as part of a continuing staff development programme within a particular school or LEA.

2. Education systems are culturally specific - they cannot (and should not) be exported. For this reason the management education needed for senior people within the various national education systems may need to vary according to the expectations, perceptions, functions and differing power bases of the people operating within those systems. The decentralized nature of English education, for instance, makes it almost inevitable that there will be a strong element of decision-making in many of the courses offered in this country. The following remarks, therefore, assume that while the problems cited may be common to all teachers of education management, particular emphasis is very much related to the 'local' context.

Education Management at Sheffield Polytechnic

The Education Management team at Sheffield Polytechnic, to which the writer belongs, has been working in the field since 1968. At that time the only course offered was a one year part-time day release course. In 1970 this was further developed and since then a Diploma has been available either through one year's full-time study or two years part-time study on a day release basis. We now also offer a Master of Science in Education Management, the first of its kind in Europe. The teaching team has grown in number from one lecturer in 1968 to the present strength of eight plus a research assistant. Considerable time and effort has gone into the development of the current programme and we are, at present re-thinking the Diploma, developing a new part-time MSc course, working out a strategy for short courses and setting up a research programme.

the problems we tackle

This paper will outline the problem areas we face, and give some indication of our thinking as to the way we are currently "solving" them. What then are the main problems we must tackle? They are found in our attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What are the objectives of our teaching?
2. On what criteria should students be selected and recruited?
3. What should be the content of the courses offered?
4. What are the most appropriate learning methods?
5. How can one ensure the transfer of learning from theory to practice?

The items enumerated above are not to be seen as distinct problems, to be solved consecutively; nor can we assume that once "solved" the "solutions" are necessarily valid after a period of time. They all interact continuously. Although we are working hard to develop programmes appropriate to our current commitments the political situation within which we operate means that we may have to adapt these commitments and change course. All this implies two further questions which cannot be left out of the list:

6. What is the most effective way of building up a team of teachers, and developing the individuals who form the team?

7. What is the most useful way of using resources available for research and what should be the role of research in a unit such as ours?

1. What are the objectives of our teaching?

In a system where by no means all those who have a managerial function in education can possibly be given a professional education what should be the priorities of those who offer such courses? Should we try to give short courses to as many people as possible? or longer courses to a few? Is it best to teach people from the same sector together - or mixed with people from other sectors? Should we see ourselves as 'servicing the system' or are we trying to be a catalyst in the education system by offering places to the 'best' candidates? Some institutions specialize in the organization of short courses - the main effort of Sheffield Polytechnic at the moment is in the development of long courses - one year's full-time study, although we shall, from this year, offer short courses too.

The over-riding aim of our education management courses might be described as the effective management of education via personal and professional development of our students. It is clear from the admissions procedure which is to be described later that other things being equal we select our students with a view to the likely impact they will have on the education service in their own area, i.e. we see ourselves as developing people who will be catalysts.

How to translate our over-riding aim into objectives? Like other curriculum developers in more conventional fields we originally specified particular objectives. These were, for the Diplomas:

a) To identify and analyze the objectives of education as perceived by society, industry, pupils and students, parents and educationists; and to provide an understanding of the environmental and internal influences upon management and educational activity.

b) To analyze the contemporary and emergent problems of education in the context of management theory and practice; the use and limitations of management techniques; and the application of these analyses and techniques.

c) To provide specialists in the various sectors of education management with opportunities to gain insight into related areas.[1]

For the Master's course, which has as its focus the management of planned change we expected that, by the end of the course students would be able:

a) To evaluate critically a proposal to effect an organisational change in education;

b) To acquire a wide range of relevant knowledge and understandings, and to be able to specify their transfer to appropriate situations;

c) To give evidence of the ability effectively to plan, implement, evaluate and control planned change.[1]

In both courses the emphasis was to be on analysis, leading to the development of diagnostic skills and the selection of appropriate strategies for the solution of practical problems. This sentence contains two key words which were to change our thinking on the nature of objectives. These are 'analyst' and 'skills' . analysis and skills are learnt by 'doing' - theory may provide helpful insights but knowledge of theory does not ensure the development of skills. Furthermore our students come from such a variety of backgrounds and situations that it is very difficult to specify one particular 'end product' - there will be a variety of 'end-products'. Therefore we now place more emphasis on developing and evaluating the quality of the process experienced by the student during his time with us. Currently instead of stating course objectives we now outline features which should characterize the course. These characteristics include, for example:

a) Any theory taught on the course must be justified in terms of its relevance to the manager;

b) there should be a flexible curriculum and structure to meet individual student needs;

c) there should be opportunity for personal growth, including the opportunity to take risks and investigate uncertainties;

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[1] These statements are taken from our original working papers.

d) students should be able to share in the management of the course;

e) students should be assessed on the extent to which they, individually, have developed.

Such an approach implies a process of continuous evaluation of the staff just as much as of the students. It is more risky, and more exciting, than the conventional approach which assesses student attainment or output, where the onus for failure is on the student for not having 'learned'. We share the failure, if there is failure, with the students.

2. On what criteria should students be recruited and selected?

In order to be effective a manager needs a complex set of skills, as well as knowledge and understanding in a variety of fields. Selection of such people can therefore be a difficult process as they will need to be assessed on a variety of criteria and will usually have had a variety of experience which makes comparisons tricky.

The Sheffield courses are designed for 'education managers' rather than specific categories such as headmasters, or administrators. A class drawn from as many different sectors as possible will have much to learn from each other, personally and professionally.

We have developed an admissions procedure designed to help students select the course most appropriate to their needs. Therefore, instead of setting out different entry criteria for the Diploma and MSc we ask candidates to apply for the education management programme rather than for a specific course. Most candidates are interviewed by two members of staff for about an hour, sometimes two hours. The interview is seen not only as a sifting process but also as an opportunity for guidance and counselling: some students may be advised to take a further course of study elsewhere, or to come back in a couple of years' time when they have more experience.

To be selected for a place on the programme students have to give evidence of:

a) Appropriate managerial experience. This is considered essential. There are some courses which do not insist on this experience and claim to prepare people for responsibility. We believe that education management benefits from being a post-experience study, and also, given scarce resources, it is more efficient to offer this study to experienced people.

b) Capacity for further development, both personal and professional. Assessment of such capacity is difficult, even with the help of

references and two people to interview. While these two people may be able to agree to some extent on the candidate's ability to conceptualize and analyze, a consistent system of interviewing is not possible without fairly lengthy staff discussions. Over a period team members are paired for interviewing with all other members of the team so that they can learn from each other.

c) Intellectual ability: Most students have a degree or equivalent, with or without a teaching qualification. While high standards of achievement are normally expected, especially for the MSc, we occasionally take students with lesser qualifications if they are clearly suitable on other grounds.

Thus our interview procedure is often lengthy - and some candidates, especially weak or borderline cases, may see more than two members of staff. Candidates in very senior positions like to come and discuss the course (i.e. interview us) before they decide to put in an application. This makes the process even more time-consuming but it does have the advantage of ensuring that a good many of our students are committed to the course before they join. We would also like to see candidates' employers or immediate superiors but time and money militate against this.

3. What should be the content of the courses offered?

It was pointed out earlier in this paper that the problem areas were interrelated. For obvious reasons problems of content and method are so closely linked as to be practically indistinguishable at times, especially when students are sharing in a process rather than being fed with information. The way in which we think about content has become much more linked with process during the last year or so; and we have also been concerned to develop a study which might properly be called 'education management'.

This last point raises the question: is education management as a field of study different from any other kind of management, industrial, commercial or public service management generally? While it is true that certain concepts may be common to all forms of management, their application to a particular field such as education is, in some areas, at such a level of generality as to be unhelpful. It might appear that organization theory, for example, or personnel management, are areas of study which might transfer readily from industry, where they have been much developed, to education. However, factors in the education system, such as the notions of professionalization for instance, and specific applications of such areas of study to education, skew the emphasis of these areas in the course of teaching. Thus the first steps in the generation of a curriculum appropriate to education management have been taken, i.e. selection of relevant areas such as social psychology, statistics, curriculum theory etc. and adaptation of such areas to education management.

We are now working on the third phase, i.e. the creation of an integrated form of 'education management'. At the moment it is unlikely that, without more research, studies in education management are going to contribute anything new to any of the foundation areas such as organization theory. Rather, any newness is likely to come from the illumination given to education management by the nature and complexity of the relationships between the concepts associated with the foundation areas. This endeavour highlights one of the main differences between our Diploma and MSc. Whereas the Diploma exploits existing theory to investigate practical problems facing students, the MSc is, in some measure, concerned with the testing out of current theory and the generation of new theory more appropriate to the management of education. It may be that our efforts will not succeed in developing a new discipline but, at the very least, the continued attempt to do so should help us to obtain the right balance in our curricula between skills and understandings, and help us to solve problems such as pace and sequence within our teaching.

The content of our courses is not only 'academic'. Education management, like medicine, is an activity where skills as well as knowledge are important. Therefore students are encouraged to develop skills in the diagnosis of situations, establishment of purposes, identification and evaluation of feasible courses of action, and more 'personal' skills such as team-building, interviewing. The importance of the skills element and its relationship with the academic content brings us back to the question of process mentioned above. Clearly students need the insights derived from the academic content in order to use appropriate skills but the acquisition of these skills depends on the provision of appropriate learning situations. The problem of balance is thus a continuing one, and is closely linked to that of selecting the most appropriate learning methods.

4. What are the most effective learning methods?

Here the problem is to find those methods which best serve the content outlined in the previous section and which are best suited to the students we recruit.

Students are in most cases aged between 30 and 55 years of age and hold senior positions in schools, colleges and other institutions. Their qualifications and experience vary considerably. Thus they have different needs and different starting points. As the course itself is an example of education management we should be seen to put into practice those principles that we preach!

The Diploma and the MSc have different emphases. The Diploma is a general education management course in which there is a common core of theory which takes up the minority of the student's time. Other time is structured by the student in consultation with staff with the understanding that each student has particular strengths and weaknesses which can be catered for

on an individual basis. The MSc is a more structured programme in which all the work is focussed onto the management of planned change. However, both courses share a common philosophy as far as learning is concerned.

Both stress co-operative rather than competitive learning; both contain practical sessions devoted to the acquisition of skills; both use a variety of methods: lectures, small group work, games, case-studies, in-tray simulations; both allow for the same topic to be covered in different ways by different groups of students. Course work is related to the needs and strengths of individual students, or groups of students, in that students negotiate with staff on an individual or group basis as to what assignments they should do during the programme. Thus there is no set work common to all students. Each student averages about two hours a week in tutorial work with staff. Finally there is opportunity for informal social contact between students, and betweeen students and staff. A cohesive group situation is more readily obtained in full-time classes, more difficult in part-time classes. This year we have tried to build up an atmosphere of trust and co-operation in the part-time class by delaying the introduction of academic work until the group had effectively 'gelled'.

The main problems in using such methods are, firstly that a continuing effort has to be made by staff to justify academic content in terms of relevance to students and secondly that such methods are very expensive in terms of staff time. However, the time and the effort are necessary to ensure the transfer of learning from theory to practice.

5. How does one ensure the transfer of learning from theory to practice?

The central problem in professional education is to ensure that students apply to actual situations the theory that they have learned. At Sheffield the main vehicle for this is the project. Each student manages an actual operation within his own organization: on the Diploma course this takes up sixteen weeks out of the year's programme; on the MSc course a year's full-time academic study is followed by a year of part-time study and work on the project which, it is estimated, will take up some 20% of a student's job time. Thus the work undertaken reflects on our admissions policy: all students must already be in a post of responsibility, otherwise they will have no power or influence basis from which to carry out the project.

The project has to satisfy three criteria:[2]

a) The topic chosen should provide a suitable learning activity for the student in that it allows him to use the theories and techniques acquired in the first part of the programme.

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[2] The following criteria and description of the project are taken from our current working papers.

b) It must be practicable in terms of the facilities available, and the time constraints; and be politically acceptable.

c) The project should be designed so that the school, college or other organization concerned can derive a direct and observable benefit.

It is intended that the project will involve the identification of the organizational need, the setting of objectives, the planning of appropriate action, its implementation and evaluation. Where the time-span available will not permit all these steps, the project report will include all the stages up to the time of writing, followed by a detailed statement of what further steps would be intended, and how the evaluation would be accomplished.

Experience with the Diploma course during the last year or so has suggested that the dividing line between theory and practice is becoming less sharp. We have now moved from academic essays to assignments during the first part of both courses. Assignments are individually negotiated, practically based, centred on a particular problem and may be presented for evaluation in a variety of forms. Discussions about projects have moved further back into the theory part of the course. On the other hand this coming year we shall, for the first time recall all Diploma students to Sheffield twice during the course of their project so that they can exchange experiences and share discussion of common problems with staff. In this way we hope there will be a continuing process of enrichment between the theoretical and practical aspects of the work.

This year, also for the first time, we will run a 'short course' for head teachers which will centre on their solving problems in their own schools. The problem with much short-course work is that there is little opportunity to see whether there has in fact been any change as a result of the course. We hope that by basing the course on problems identified by headteachers themselves, by relating the theory to these problems and by monitoring the solution of these problems we shall be able to ensure some transfer of theory into practice.

For us the degree to which the transfer actually takes place is the main criterion for evaluation of the students - and of ourselves'. There are no formal written examinations, for the Diploma or the MSc. Assessment is on the project and assignments done during the year.

6. What is the most effective way of building up a team of teachers, and, at the same time, developing the individuals who form the team?

In an emerging subject area such as education management where there is no tradition, where there are no fixed boundaries, where there is a minimal amount of literature and an even smaller amount of research, the formation of a team of staff is of major importance. As pointed out earlier the distinctiveness of education management as a field of study probably lies in the nature

and complexity of the relationships between relevant concepts, skills and knowledge which are drawn from the contributing disciplines. This in turn implies close and continuing contact between staff. We have been fortunate in that the leadership style within the team has been one which encourages and develops such contact.

Few of us came to the team as specialists in 'education management', we came rather as sociologists, psychologists, mathematicians etc., all with a particular interest in the effective management of education, or as interested in developing the theory which would illuminate the practice. At the beginning it was not always clear how disciplines needed to be changed to work in a different context. In fact this problem is a continuing source of discussion, and the pattern of organization within the team helps to ensure that discussion is continuous.

First, the discipline of preparing a detailed programme for the Diploma and the MSc has meant that there have been frequent staff meetings at which each member of staff has had to justify and defend his own contribution. Naturally these contributions evolved during the course of discussions. More important, staff became more aware of the nature of the links between their teaching subjects.

The next step in such co-operative activity will be the planning of research. These joint tasks have a direct pay-off for our teaching. It is perhaps significant that those of us who were on the team last year tended to teach as individuals then but this year there has been more team-teaching and sitting in on the classes of other lecturers. Familiarity with each others interests also makes it easy for the member of staff who is teaching at any one time to make effective use of other members of staff. Such developments have just happened and have not been planned in any formal sense. All staff teach on all courses so that there are no separate sub-teams and all are able to benefit from the kind of discussion outlined above.

Similarly the main administrative tasks are shared out among the team rather than being arranged in any sort of hierarchy. Individuals keep a particular job for two or three years, with someone to act as a deputy, and are then given a different task. Most people have two jobs - acquired as a result of discussion and negotiation. Such a system develops the team, shares the load, and ensures that no-one has to carry a heavy administrative burden to the detriment of their academic work. Major policies are always debated within the team.

Within the team each member of staff has complete autonomy in planning their work, but this is controlled to some extent by the framework jointly agreed of the Diploma and MSc courses. Thus we try to develop an integrated approach while developing individual strengths and avoiding the worst characteristics of isolated development found in some universities for instance.

The two problems which follow from the kind of team approach described above are firstly that of determining the ideal number for a team and secondly assessing the speed with which new staff can be inducted. There has been some pressure on us to expand our work - which means recruitment of new staff. However, the absorption of new staff takes time: too many too quickly and the development would be fragmented. Some of us have no wish to belong to a group which is too big but no doubt the current financial squeeze will take that worry from us'.

7. What is the most useful way of using resources available for research?

Of course research is important in developing new knowledge and insights but we hope to use our research programme to continue staff development on the pattern outlined above and also to use the research directly for teaching purposes. Often in universities and sometimes in polytechnics research is done by people specially appointed to do that research and they are not necessarily in contact with the students or teaching staff of their department. We feel that all our staff should be involved in research either by debating the research programme we are developing, or by directing a research topic, or by assisting at seminars run by those closely involved in a particular topic, or by doing personal research. Any one member of staff may well be involved in several of these activities. Research staff share the teaching in the unit thus ensuring that they are not isolated, that their research has a direct pay-off for our teaching and that teaching staff have more time to become involved in research.

Finally, how can one summarize the nature of the problems outlined in the previous pages? Fundamentally the main teaching problems are the linked ones of ensuring that theory and practice illuminate each other and that there is an improvement in students' ability to manage in a real situation.

Education management is a relatively new area of study in a European context, and there is relatively little comparative European experience of teaching it in a professional rather than academic fashion. Demand for education management courses is growing as it becomes clear that a complex education system needs good management in order to be efficient and effective. There are dangers in a rapid proliferation of education management courses unless the staff teaching such courses are developed into integrated teams.

The dangers include a fragmentation of content, a divorce of theory from practice, un-useful research, teaching cut off from policy. Such faults are to be found in many current teacher training programmes which are attracting increasing criticism (see, for example, some of the chapters in Perspectives in European Teacher Education, ed Lomax, John Wylie, 1975). On-going experiments in teacher education are attempting to integrate theory and practice in ways which are similar to some of those practised at Sheffield. It

is important that education management courses do not dissolve into disintegrated irrelevant academic certificates - there is neither the time nor the money to spare.

J B Baffaut,
Professor at INAS
in the Department
of Educational
Technology.

GENERAL PROBLEMS CONCERNING THE TRAINING OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS IN FRANCE

"Educational administration in France is entirely part of the Civil Service, which employs 1, 845, 000 people. The educational sector includes 868, 000 civil servants. It has been estimated that educational administration alone, excluding school-teachers, employs about 250, 000 people in central and regional educational services and in the schools.

As throughout the Civil Service, educational administration is entered via a competitive examination and promotion to a higher grade is usually dependent on the result of such an examination. This has led to the setting up, at every level, of two kinds of competitive examination, one reserved for civil servants already working in the educational sector, and called an internal competitive examination; the other open to students and people from outside, and called an external competitive examination. For certain posts (for example, that of Bursar), there are no external examinations, but only an internal examination, open to attachés to the Bursar's office; in other cases (Headmasters, inspecteurs d'Académie), there is no competitive examination, but an internal selection procedure amongst teachers fulfilling the necessary conditions to be a candidate.

At present three distinct periods of training can be distinguished. Firstly, there is the 'preparation for the competitive examination'. This was set up in 1962 in order to attract candidates to administrative careers, because of insufficient numbers, which explains why this preparation is not particularly specialised, and is available as a correspondance course in order to attract a greater number of candidates.

Since this preparation is not particularly specialised, success in the competitive examination is followed by a preparation for the job in question, called 'initial training' and organised by a competitive examination. This training which follows an internal examination may be shorter than the training which follows an external examination since one is dealing with people who are familiar with administrative procedures, although in some cases it is the same for everyone. The initial training is primarily intended to introduce the new civil servants to the full range of tasks which they may be called upon to perform, tasks which may be extremely varied. Secondly, it aims to smooth the way for people taking up their new posts, to give them information and knowledge which might be new to them, to improve the smooth-running of the administrative services, and to increase the adaptability and versatility of people and systems.

For civil servants already in post, there are schemes for subsequent training, called 'schemes for continuous training,' which are constantly being revised. Originally these were schemes for improving employees' performance, or based on the introduction of new techniques, but recently their scope has been widened and they have benefitted from the increased interest in such courses in France due to the Government's scheme of continuous vocational training. The definition of conditions, methods and content of courses of continuous training is certainly the key problem where the general organisation of courses for educational administration is concerned. The training, whether initial or continuous, is at present directed mainly at executives - category A civil servants -, with a first university degree ("licence"), who make up about one third of the total number of civil servants in education.

pedagogic and administrative training

Educational administration in France is subject to a rigid hierarchy. It includes two categories of administrators, whose recruitment and training have always been treated differently: on the one hand there are the administrators from the central and regional educational services; on the other, the administrators working in the schools, who are ex-teachers.

This distinction has always weighed heavy on the system. In order to go some way towards remedying the situation, the Inspecteur d'Académie, the Head of the educational administrative services in the 'département', is always an ex-teacher. On the other hand, the administrators working in the schools are trained administrators.

The administrative services plan, provide, and supervise the staff and the resources of every school, as well as the subjects taught. The administrative and financial duties of the administrators in the schools are better taught, defined and supervised at a higher level than their pedagogical duties of organisation, coordination and innovation in the life of the school. Everyone agrees in principle to giving priority to the pedagogical duties and training of administrators. But the problem has not been solved. There is a constant debate about the respective weight to be given to the administrative training and the pedagogical training of educational administrators.

training and practice

Next, one of the main concerns is that the training should always relate to the practical needs of the educational system. This relationship works in two ways.

In one way it is necessary to train employees and executives in administrative procedures and regulations, and to teach them to adapt these to the needs of and the conditions obtaining in the schools: they must be made "operational". In another way, the administrators working in the schools must be given the chance to air their problems, so that the entire body of civil servants working in education can examine the interdependence of their jobs, can define and propose to the authorities common objectives, and can work out more coherent methods for achieving them.

This concern for the relationship between training and practice has four consequences. The first concerns the concept of continuous training and its relationship to the initial training.

When it is decided to introduce a new administrative or financial technique, the principles and practice are explained to staff undergoing initial training. These efforts should be pursued once the staff take up their jobs. At the same time, information sessions and courses are organised for more senior staff so as to accelerate the penetration of the new technique. This concept of continuous training presupposes that the reforms are sufficiently well defined and are imposed with sufficient authority.

Without being incompatible with this system, continuous training can also function, since it brings together experienced administrators, as a research system, based on practical problems experienced in the schools, in order to bring up to date, confirm and support the direction and aims to be given to the initial training.

Of course, in order to work, this research function must take place within the framework of a heterogeneous training scheme, which brings together the administrators from the educational services and those from the schools. The activities of continuous training thus quite naturally brings to the surface its own organisers, and will reveal the tutors necessary for the initial training.

Indeed, this is the second consequence of the concern with linking training with the genuine conditions involved in doing a particular job: the tutors are generally working administrators, and not seconded staff. They carry out, on a full-time basis, the responsibilities for which they are preparing their colleagues. This option, renewed on several occasions, will probably be maintained. There are two problems: to make tutors of these administrators, and to provide the overworked tutors with the necessary material support.

The third consequence: the initial training is largely carried out on the job, in the form of courses in the schools and the educational services. This means associating with the training a large number of executives in the schools and educational services who have to accept trainees. If this is not the case, the courses in situ might well not have the training value we expect of them. Here we see once more the importance of the activities of continuous training in the training of tutors.

Finally, the last consequence: the training programmes must be developed and organised by interdisciplinary and interhierarchical teams of tutors. The teams based on the Académie, set up in 1970, are of this type, since one finds the Head of the financial services of the Recteur's office alongside teachers. This goes against traditional practice, is sometimes considered as a disturbance of daily routines, and causes certain difficulties.

autonomy

However, the development of heterogeneous teams in charge of training programmes is continuing. What needs to be developed is the idea of exchanges between trainees from different parts of the system, and even between the administrators and the trainee teachers.

Selection (by competitive examination or other means) usually takes place before the initial training. It must be pointed out that, in these conditions, there is no testing procedure as such at the end of the training. In many cases the administrators know where they will be sent before the end of their period of training, and this cannot be altered. This fact gives greater freedom to those engaged in the training and, even if the training sometimes reveals weaknesses in the selection procedures, it seems preferable to maintain the system. Moreover, the existing training centres are anxious to maintain the autonomy they enjoy in relationship to selection and promotion procedures. The introduction of any form of classifying trainees according to their performance during initial training would irrevocably compromise such freedom. The same independence must be guaranteed in continuous training.

harmonisation

The final general problem: that of the harmonisation of the spirit and the methods of training between the various centres and the various administrative bodies. At the moment, at regional level, one can count up to a dozen training organisations. The staff trained in these different centres all have responsibility for organisational matters, and have to work together within the schools. There is no doubt that the result is needless conflict, because the difficulties of subsequent communication and collaboration were not included in the training.

Moreover, this leads to a fragmentation of pedagogical and human resources.

The objectives of education, which in principle are held in common and defined by the authorities, are in fact accepted and modified in a fluid situation of changing events - sometimes in a state of disarray. The places in which the multiple influences which help to modify these objectives originate, and where they eventually have their effect, are primarily the schools. This is why the interest shown in the training of administrators working in the schools has taken on increased importance these last few years. It has been increasingly obvious that all training schemes should be subordinated to what goes on in the schools.

It would seem wise, therefore, to set up training networks including various categories of staff, associating tutors and the administrators in continuous training schemes. These networks would be based on a regional training framework and a coordinator. They would seek bases for harmonisation and coordination amongst training schemes. They would direct and plan training schemes within the schools, the educational services, and organisations outside education. They would ensure exchanges between all categories of trainees and all teams of tutors. Since teachers play such an important rôle in the life of the school, the training of administrators should be harmonised and coordinated with in-service training, which would no longer be merely didactic, but would open onto the entire life of the school.

From a basic training course designed in this way one could envisage no longer merely courses in situ, but also courses in responsibility for the conduct of actions of limited duration, aimed at the improvement of the functioning of a school or an educational service, exchanges and confrontations between trainees and teams of tutors, which would open up new possibilities of evaluating training schemes.

The path followed in France by those concerned with the training of educational administrators has resulted in a large number of civil servants in education, besides doing an administrative job, being responsible in another sector for training schemes with a bias towards research and restructuring. They must, moreover, be given the means and the methods of evaluating the training they give."

Soubry,
Inspecteur
d'Academie,
Rennes

THE TRAINING OF HEADMASTERS

The training of headmasters is a new idea: until 1969, a teacher could become a headmaster overnight and pass from the domain of teaching in class to that of the administration of a teaching establishment without any training. The first obligatory training worthy of such a name began in 1970.

In 1975, we are therefore still only taking the first steps in a training experiment; we are still feeling our way on many of the points.

But it is possible to give a description of our system, even if it includes a large part which is still in the process of evolution.

Conception

In 1970 training became obligatory for future headmasters and assistant headmasters, vice-principals and headmasters of 'lycees' and principals of CES (Colleges d'Enseignement Secondaire). The events of May 1968 were responsible for this. It suddenly became obvious that headmasters had to have different knowledge and different qualities from those which go to make up a good teacher. Above all, if it was already evident that a headmaster was not a pure administrator, a bureaucrat, shut up in his office and solely occupied with old papers, May 1968 made everyone understand that the headmaster was at the heart of the relationships which are formed in a teaching establishment, at the heart of what we call in France 'la vie scolaire' (school life). In short, it was realized that a headmaster should have a training other than the purely university training given to a teacher destined to impart his knowledge to others, so that he could fulfil his duty and play his role in a suitable manner.

In 1970-71, therefore, training was organised, or rather, improvised in each 'académie' by teams made up of practising headmasters, and in 1971, by means of a ministerial letter dated 20th August, 1971, teams were created from the 'académies' who, among others, were put in charge of the training of future headmasters.

It is worthwhile emphasizing the full denomination of these teams: teams from the 'académies' responsible for the organisation of 'la vie scolaire'. The

ministerial letter of 20th August, 1971 defines 'la vie scolaire' and its organisation in the following way:

> "'La vie scolaire' is the life of the educational communities formed by schools and teaching establishments. Educational activity concerns all personnel of the establishment. It cannot be separated from teaching activity. The two forms of activity are only the dominant factors of a whole activity which aims essentially at making people accomplish themselves to the full.
>
> The organisation consists of provoking, assisting and attuning the interplay which results from concerted action between pupils and adults."

And Monsieur Minot, former head of the INAS (Institut National de l'Administration Scolaire), points out in his "lexicon of the terms in use in the administration of education" his definition of the same term of 'vie scolaire':

> "The set of activities (of whatever kind indulged in by different people - children and adults - during the time in which they stay at the teaching establishment. The atmosphere of the 'vie scolaire' depends on a number of factors: the type of authority, the kind of work (individual or as a team, independent, alternated .....) of the pupils and teachers, the structures, the network of communication, the relations which the different members of the establishment entertain with each other, the material conditions ....."

What is apparent in these definitions is the idea that the French educational establishments are something other than places of teaching - where the pupils come to learn and the teachers to give lessons - that they are also places where pupils and teachers live together outside the classroom, where relationships are formed amongst them and also with others: the parents of pupils for example - that they are places where it is no longer enough to impart knowledge but where people must learn to live together, in a state of collectively, without isolating themselves from the outside world.

We did in a way invent this term of 'vie scolaire' when we understood that the aim of school was an aim of 'complete education' and no longer simply one of 'teaching' a certain number of juxtaposed disciplines.

But, to return to the 'équipes academiques' (teams from the académies) responsible for the organisation of the 'vie scolaire'. Their role is a dual one:

1. To think about the problems of the 'vie scolaire' - to provoke thought and comparisons of experience, and in 1971-72 to study the problem of 'participation' and that of academic rhythms (organisation of the school week, of the school year, etc. ...).

2. Within this general framework, to train headmasters.

This training concerns the headmasters of secondary schools, and their assistant headmasters - but in 1975 all the categories are still not trained. We train Headmasters and vice-principals of 'lycées' and heads of CES but the under-heads (Assistant Headmasters) of CES and the heads of CEG (Collèges d'Enseignement Général), who, however, have the same responsibilities, are not trained. This is claimed to be due to budgetary constraints.

The training demanded from the 'équipes académiques' is at the same time an initial training, before the taking-up of office - for ten days or three months according to the case - and a continuous training - of four days - during the first school year which follows the taking-up of office.

The 'équipes académiques' were made up in a singular way:

1. The person responsible for them is the 'Recteur' (the Minister's representative in the Académie) who usually charges an Inspecteur d'Academie with the effective conduct of the work. It is for this reason that I have been responsible for l'Equipe Académique de l'Académie de Rennes since 1971.

2. The members of the team are in the majority heads (of all categories) but, in an evident concern to break down boundaries between 'départements', a Departmental Inspector of National Education (IDEN whose scope in France covers essentially primary teaching), a headmaster, a school bursar, a member of university administration, an education councillor and a director of the Centre of Information and Orientation are also included.

3. All the people who make up the team (there are seventeen in that of Rennes) are practising teachers and retain their usual duties, without any additional help.

I am responsible for the Team at the same time as being Inspecteur d'Académie d'Ille-et-Vilaine - that is to say responsible for infant, primary and secondary teaching in a département of 700,000 inhabitants.

One may well ask why this structure has been put in service - and why INAS has not assumed responsibility for the training, since this body was in existence.

Doubtless it was firstly a question of numbers. Every year between eight hundred and nine hundred future heads or assistant heads need training of which five hundred are trained during the three month practical course. INAS, with its current personnel, could not meet this task. Charged along with the Inspecteurs Généraux de la Vie Scolaire with the general idea of the training, INAS therefore chose its role of trainer of trainers.

The ministerial letter of 20th August, 1971 stated that the training of the Equipes Académiques was entrusted to the INAS. (I quote):

- ho can:

- train the équipes academiques to organise and conduct practical courses, and, thus to prepare them for their future function as organisers;
- facilitate their search for types of special activity
- help them to conceive of the details of their activity
- put forward for their scrutiny types of practical courses and already tested programmes
- provide them with resources and teaching material."

INAS chose the technique of pyramid training: it began by training (and continues to train) the members of twenty-five équipes académiques, who, in their turn, train the heads of teaching establishments. Naturally in the practical details each équipe carries out its work independently but contact with INAS is not broken. Interchange between INAS and each team are continuous, through the device of practical courses and study days. Thanks to INAS there is also interchange between the teams who are thus aware of each other's activities and can modify the course of their work, or hope to improve it. The équipes académiques guarantee that the training is given by active working people who have not lost contact with everyday problems rather than 'training experts'. In a period of crisis or evolution in the system this 'deep involvement' in everyday reality seems to us to be essential.

Functioning

a) The characteristics of the training guaranteed by the équipes académiques can be rapidly enumerated:

- it is obligatory, as we have seen already, at least for certain categories;
- it is carried out on the spot (in the setting of the Académie which may be composed of four or five départements, and does not uproot those doing practical courses from their usual environment, they are at the very most at a distance of two or three hours' drive from their homes while being trained);

- it is alternated as it is generally made up of practical courses in establishments and periods of regrouping at training centres;
- above all, what is different from nearly all other training of administrative personnel is that it does not lead to a competitive examination (it is not a university training) nor to any selection whatsoever: in fact, the headmasters trained by the équipes académiques were as a preliminary measure chosen by other bodies (Inspecteur d'Académie, Recteur and Ministre) and are registered on what we call an aptitude list.

In other words, these employees, when their training begins, know that the post of headmaster will be offered to them - and very often they already know which one.

b) What kind of training is given to them? Before starting on this point, it is important to remind oneself of the respective roles of the headmaster of a secondary school in France and England.

Without going into detail, one can say that once the resources have been allotted, the English headmaster is indisputably more independent in the choice of teachers, the range of subjects taught, and in a more general way the organisation of the work and the educational aim of his establishment than his French counterpart whose role for a long time - for too long - has been that of implementing ministerial directives which regulate the timetables, the programmes, indeed even the discipline (there is a national scale of punishment) in an establishment where he cannot choose the teachers who are sent to him by the Ministry or the Recteur's office which also settles the disciplines to be taught (modern languages, for example) in so far as they are not subjects to be taught obligatorily in all establishments.

Training of headmasters, in France, is in the context of Napoleon's act of centralisation; the headmaster must put directives into application, he must account for his actions, ask preliminary authorisation in most cases, know the texts and rulings.

The training must therefore include an apprenticeship in the necessary administrative techniques which the teacher, a pure pedagogue, does not know .....

But, if one considers the aims of the équipes académiques, it is evident that we could not forget either the pedagogic or educational problems or the problems of relationships: the headmaster can no longer simply impose respect for the text; on the teachers, he must take his 'Conseil d'Administration' into account, he has to speak with the parents, to make disciplines which are no longer suitable for the young people of 1975 more flexible (especially when these young people, formerly minors until twenty-one years of age who now reach the age of majority at eighteen) .... and not all of this is regulated by texts or circulars.

Let us add to that that 'reforms' succeed one another: creating the CES to replace the former 'first cycles' of the lycée, suppression of 'streams' in the CES, creation of new classes such as those which are preparatory to the apprenticeship in which one practises sandwich type courses - something of which no-one had had previous experience, etc. .....

The headmaster of 1975 leaves the rigid and in a sense protective framework of the 'Bulletin Officiel' to enter into the changing field of pedagogic innovation, of evolution in customs, of relationships sustained with the other partners of the educational activity, parents in particular.

From spring 1975 the aims of the équipes are as follows:

At Rennes we thought that, if a minimum of training was necessary in administrative techniques (budget, employment of time, techniques of the secretariat .....) the essential factor of the apprenticeship in this field could be covered during the practical courses in the establishments, or in the course of the first year of office, in a word 'on the job'.

But the periods of regroupement (training centres) have for their aims:

1. What we call 'opening out' - i.e. broadening, that is to say the discovery by the person undergoing the practical course of aspects often unknown to the teacher: the relations with industry for example (outlets, employment of the pupils), comparative education (for the French teacher cannot conceive, for example, that an educational system can function without supervisors and finds it difficult to imagine how one can allow the pupils some choice in the subjects they study (optional teaching); in this domain of 'opening out', the practical course in industry made obligatory last year for every headmaster plays a large role. The teacher suddenly discovers a world of which he knew nothing.

2. The development of personal skills and, in particular, talent for communication, and for group organisation - for we think that the essential factor of the headmaster's work is going to be on the level of individual relationships or relationships with groups - so that it may be a question of explaining, convincing, avoiding tensions or conflicts, or of causing structures and attitude to evolve.

3. What we are looking for finally is to effect a sort of change in the individual. From a teacher who, by tradition, in France, participates not at all, or too little, in the life of his establishment, it is a matter of creating a headmaster whose first concern will be the creation of a living establishment - and, he who says life says evolution.

The general scheme for the training given in 1974 to those from Rennes and Nantes who were doing practical courses (probationers) in order to meet these objectives forms an appendix to this paper.

In this training a large place has been given:

a) To the self-training of the probationers: through the distribution of a bibliography, a list of questions to study at the time of the practical courses in the establishments, elaboration with the probationers themselves of the topics of study at the time of these practical courses, a regular evaluation of the practical courses;

b) To training in a group situation by using the abilities of a probationer in this or that field to contribute to the training of his colleagues.

c) Very generally, an appeal is made to the activity of the probationers by working in groups, by case studies, by games in which they assume roles, by practical work ..... and formal lectures are reduced to a minimum.

However, the équipes académiques do not escape the difficulties which I shall try to list:

1. In the local context:

a) Insufficient training of the trainers because INAS must deal with numerous tasks and cannot devote itself solely to the équipes académiques.

b) The extra burden of the job for the trainers who still hold their usual responsibilities (in 1971-72, the members of the Rennes team were called upon to participate in meetings or in various practical courses (either as probationers or as trainers) during thirty-seven days .....)

c) The problem of renewing the members of the teams. Some of them leave the 'académie' or wish to retire from the team after one or two years in order to give themselves more fully to their usual office. This poses the problem of the stability of the team, of the integration of new members and thus of the coherence of the team.

That then is the essential problem. Each member of the team, at the start, has his own concept of the institution, co attaches more or less importance to one or other aspects of the 'vie scolaire' It is important that a common viewpoint arises from the works of the team or tra g must be coherent in order to be efficient. While the trainers have different personalities and ways of approaching questions or solving difficulties, they should not, all the same, be in flagrant disagreement on fundamental questions.

2. As with the national plan, the aims, such as I have defined them above, are not necessarily perceived in the same way by the twenty-five équipes académiques. INAS intervenes here again: by means of permanent liaisons with the teams, by the meetings which it sets up among the teams themselves and the exchange of information which it provokes, it plays the role of a flexible governor. However, one cannot deny that the French system, very centralised and very highly codified, definitely has a much greater resistance to change than the English system, which is more decentralised and more pragmatic. A Frenchman cannot help being struck by the contrast between the insistance placed by the English administrators on evolution, innovation, change (curriculum development, etc. .....), and the ritual reference of the French administrator to the Bulletin Officiel (Ministry Circulars) and to this or that circular whose reference or date is given and which settles (is supposed to settle?) this or that problem ..... This "respect for rules" is a certain obstacle to innovation; in certain cases, it is also an easy excuse, or a pretext for refusing the change.

Two problems arise from this:

- an inevitable difference between the aims of the twenty-five teams, because one does not, overnight, get rid of customs well rooted in respect for laws in order to approach the field of innovation;
- difficulty in adjusting the training to the needs.

According to the respective importance given to respect for texts or necessary evolutions, we shall be tempted to satisfy immediate needs: the headmaster will be trained to administer the existing system, without questioning it, while waiting for evolutions to be prescribed for it; adjusting only to the "mechanics" of the system; or else one will aim at a less immediate need, that is to say, adjustment to a system undergoing evolution; then the headmaster will be trained in such a way that he is the engine of this evolution ("the catalyser").

This depends on how aware one is of the crisis of the system - or on one's estimation of this crisis.

Evolution

The training of headmasters is, by nature, in a state of permanent evolution.

a) The aims which have just been described by means of the game played in the relationships between the teams and INAS, and between the teams themselves, are altered, influence each other, and evolve as ideas are more deeply examined.

b) The content itself evolves as a function of these aims, but also because of other factors, in particular the length of the training.

To return to a previous point:

From 1970 to 1973 the initial training was for ten days: it was the same for everyone whether the future headmasters were teachers, assistant heads, or even educational councillors, when, as was evident, the experience of all was not the same. Since last year, the length of this initial training has been varied according to the categories. We continue to give a ten day training to headmasters who already have administrative experience, assistants to the headmasters, and educational councillors, who are going to become Headmasters. But the training of the teachers has been extended to three months. In spite of this increased time, it has been quite easy for us to extrapolate what we did formerly in the ten day training, the more so as practical courses in a secondary establishment or in a firm (see appendix) have been integrated into this long training.

But it would not be the same if one were to pass to a training period of one year.

Everything would then take on a different aspect, and new forms of work would have to be invented so that the training remained active and efficient. There would not only be an extension but also an alteration in the work.

c) Then one can ask oneself if the équipes académiques would cope with the task - or if there is not room for innovation in this domain also. If the jobs become heavier, vary, and grow longer it is very evident that the members of the teams will not be able indefinitely to combine their usual functions with their duties as trainers. Now, it is important that the trainers are working men. We are then led to envisage the headmasters or the IDEN or the teachers becoming full time trainers, but for a limited period of time, with the obligation of taking up again their original post at the end of this period.

d) Doubtlessly, in due time, the evolutions of two other fundamental problems which a certain number of us are beginning to consider will also come:

1) The training, as we have seen, is distributed to people previously chosen. Now, on the one hand, they have been chosen by other bodies, and according to criteria which are not necessarily relevant: for instance an Inspecteur d'Académie or a Recteur will tend to choose people of a certain age, with some experience, with the aim of making good administrators of them; another will choose people of all ages, but dynamic and ready to make things happen ..... ; moreover, the conditions vary from place to place. In theory the initial decision is made after an interview with a Commission of three people, one of whom is the Inspecteur d'Académie; but there are cases where this interview is a mere formality and selection is made on paper. This variety, in itself, renders training difficult.

On the other hand, the fact that the probationers are virtually sure of obtaining a post renders certain of them (a minority, of course!) resistant to any training, and sometimes it is impossible for us to bring about any development in them. Sometimes, too, we have in our practical courses people whom we know after several meetings will not make good headmasters but who, however, will be nominated .....

Should the selection therefore be made not before but at the end of the training? If this were so, many of the things said above would have to be reviewed .....

a) In a parallel direction we frequently encounter the problems of teamwork in the administrative centre of an establishment. This arises from the fact that some (the headmasters) have received training while others (the deputy heads of CES) have not, that the training, when it exists is given to different categories of academic administrators by different people and sometimes in different perspectives: so the Conseillers d'Education* are trained in centres where one is content to juxtapose the intervening factors without trying to obtain a necessary harmony between the objectives. It is somewhat paradoxical that the people called to work together in the bosom of a collegial team are trained (if they are in fact trained) in different ways. For the future should we not envisage the training of teams rather than of individuals?

Conclusion

The model which I have presented is not the final one; we are far from having the answers to all our questions; it would be untrue to say, moreover, that we have an exact idea of what we are doing: it was in 1974 that, for the first time, we gave a training in three months and the headmasters thus trained only took up their offices last September.

We still have a lot to learn, and no doubt the concern of the conference being held here is to allow us to learn and modify our ideas.

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*school counsellors

APPENDIX PLAN FOR A THREE MONTH TRAINING
(at Rennes and Nantes) 1974.

A	7	GI	Problems relationships communications (3 days) Method of analysing the institution Presentation of the whole of the information - preparation of DI -
P	14	DI	Practical course in an establishment OTHER than that the candidate will practise his profession (CES for a future headmaster, a lycée for a future head of a CES.) Practical course centred on:- - internal and external relationships - pedagogic innovation - 'carte scolaire' (contacts with the other establishments in the district - meetings with IDEN, head of the Centre for Information and Orientation, etc.... - continuous training;
R	21		
I			
L	28		

2 days at the 'Inspection Académique'

M	1st	G2	Presentation services at the Centre Régional de Documentation pédagogique and at the Rectorat Pedagogic innovation (in May 1974: the law of orientation or the "Fontanet" law) Types of authority Technical information: status of the nationalised municipal establish-ments, of the State, the budget, drawing up of the timetable, techniques of the secretariat....
	5		
	12		
A		D2	Practical course in an establishment with living-in pupils; Course centred on:- - problems of the 'vie scolaire': living-in, management, social-educational centre, life of the students outside the classroom; - problems of orientation - responsibilities of the headmaster (security - accidents) - employment for the pupils (relations with industry, employ-ment services....)
	19		
Y	26	G3	Problems of orientation Life of the pupils outside the classroom Responsibilities of the headmaster Preparation for D3 and more particularly for a practical course in industry.
	2		

J	2 9		Practical course (15 days) in an establishment of the kind in which the candidate will exercise his profession; Practical course (15 days) in a firm or in administration other than 'l'Education Nationale'. Visit to his future establishment.
U	16		Practical courses centred on:-
N		D3	1 - <u>in an educational establishment:</u> - administrative and financial life (the different councils) - problems encountered in taking up office; - preparation for the start of the school year; - the examinations; - the continuous training.
E	23 30		2 - <u>in a firm</u> - the types of authority (relationships, communication) - management of the personnel; - financial management - training policy of the personnel....
J U L Y	5	G4	Problems relationships-communications (3 days). Statement about the practical course in industry Summing-up

N.B. D: practical courses in an educational establishment or in industry
G: periods of regroupment (training centres)

Jean Gavard,
General Secretary,
INAS
In charge of
Department of
University
Administration
and Finance

THE SECOND YEAR OF STUDENTS AT THE REGIONAL ADMINISTRATION INSTITUTES: A CASE STUDY

INAS and IRA

The National Institute of Academic Administration (INAS) founded in 1962 is a department of the Ministry of Education in France. It is responsible for the initial training and further training of a certain number of officials who will deal with the administration of educational departments or establishments. INAS began to decentralize its activity in 1971. At the beginning of 1975, there were twelve associate centres in different 'académies' (an educational region with university facilities). These associate centres are responsible for the organisation of the courses on a local level. INAS provides the teaching material, brings together and supports the organisers at the centres and encourages thought on educational matters.

The centres are administered by a small group of officials (between about three and six) who are under the authority of the 'recteur' (the Ministry's representative in the académie) of the académie. The course organisers are local officials who also continue with their own duties.

The Regional Administration Institutes (IRA) are Colleges which were founded in 1970 by the State Secretariat of the Civil Service. At the beginning of 1975 there were four colleges of this type: at Lille, Lyon, Nantes and Metz. Two more are expected: in the south-west and in central France.

The purpose of the IRAs is to play a part in the recruitment of certain groups of category A officials for the entire French Civil Service. These people are usually qualified according to the type of government department to which they are assigned, as 'attachés' or as 'inspecteurs'. They have responsibilities in planning. They are subordinate to officials of the highest grades who are ex-pupils of the Ecole Nationale d'Administration (ENA).

In contrast to the students of the ENA, those of the IRA may select the ministry to which they wish to be assigned on their admittance to the training college. They are selected by means of two different competitive examinations, while they are still students or while they are in public administration. Training is extended over two years, and includes a first year training common to all students and a second year of specialised training according to the ministry to which the student has chosen to be assigned. At the end of the two years, the students who have passed by a board of examiners receive a diploma: the Diploma of Public Administration. This diploma is

recognised as being equivalent to a degree under certain circumstances.

The Head of INAS and the Heads of the IRAs signed an agreement concerning the specialised training given in the 2nd year. According to the agreement, the students of the IRAs who are aiming to enter educational administration, as administrative attachés or as finance attachés (or financial administration) should receive the second year's tuition through INAS. In order to fulfil its commitments, INAS uses its network of associate centres. The second year includes a period of specialised training carried out externally to the administrative environment, and practical courses in education departments or establishments. It must be pointed out that the students of the IRAs complete a practical course during two months of the second year in different government department. This course therefore, does not come under the supervision of INAS.

student duties of the student administrators

The attachés of the Ministry of Education are classified in category A of the French Civil Service. They are therefore called upon to take responsibilities in planning. The attachés of the central administration (AAC) form an interministerial body. They are assigned to the Ministry of Education where they may be in charge of ministry departments.[1] The attachés of university administration (AAU) are put in charge of the recteur's offices (at an academic level) and the offices of the 'inspections academiques' (body of inspecteurs d'académie) (at a departmental level), as well as of the administrative departments of the universities. The attachés of university finance departments (AIU) are responsible for the material and financial management of one or more autonomous establishments, or take a part in this management under the authority of an administrator. They reach the position of administrator by means of professional examinations.

These three groups may reach a higher position by means of competitive examination: that of Administrative Counciller of University Departments (CASU). Note that there are two means of access to the attaché corps, as follows:

1) Competitive examinations organised directly by the government department (which existed before the creation of the IRAs).

2) Interministerial examinations of the Regional Administration institutes at Lille, Lyon, Nantes and Metz.

Before these colleges were founded (at the end of 1970), the Ministry of Education only gave initial training to a small minority of the intake of attaches (15% approximately).

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[1] The AAC receive a specialised training. The syllabus for the second year drawn up by INAS which is contained in this report is only relevant to students in the two other categories (the AAU and AIU) who come from the IRAs.

Student selection and preparation prior to admission into INAS

first competitive examination open to students

The maximum age for entry to the first examination is 35. Candidates must possess the "Diplôme d'Etudes Universitaires Générales" or its equivalent, namely: Baccalauréat plus successful completion of the two first years in higher education.

In practice: a large number of Arts graduates, some of whom have held the position of auxiliary teachers, sit the examination. Approximately half of the intake of the IRAs in 1975 is Arts students. Others are law students and occasionally science students.

The examination has a written part and an oral part:

a) Written:

1) Composition of a summary from a collection of documents. 4 hours - coefficient (weighting) 4

2) A technical paper with four possible options: law, management, geography, economics. 3 hours - coefficient 4

b) Oral:

Three interviews 15-20 minutes each, on technical subjects (one of the three may deal with a topical subject of general significance). Each interview coefficient 2

second competitive examination exclusive to officials

40 years is the maximum age at which this examination may be taken. Candidates need not have the certificates required for the first examination, but should have had five years experience in a civil or military post at a low level.

Again, the examination is both written and oral:

a) Written:

1) A summary of documents. 3 hours - coefficient 4

2) A composition from a choice of three subjects (French institutions, general studies, statistics). 3 hours - coefficient 4

b) Oral:

Three interviews of 15-20 minutes each, on technical subjects (one of the three may be on a topical subject of general significance). Each interview coefficient 2

An extract from the syllabus of the 1st academic year

(One year)

I - The science of administration

(General tuition or concerning the principles of administration) 4 hours per week.

A - The economic and social context of administrative activity:

Contemporary economic evolution in France.
A knowledge of the social environment.
European and international context.

B - Public administration.

1 - Administrative organisation:
legal aids
technical plan: vertical and horizontal
structures (decentralisation and delegation,
specialisation, co-ordination).

2 - Duties of administration:
General administration: law enforcement,
execution of government policy.
Intervention: in the economy.

3 - State role in social matters.

4 - State role in education and training.

II - Tuition in training

Students are split into study groups (of 25).

A - Law - 3 hours a week.

For example:

Legal and practical techniques of administrative decision.
Town planning and building.
Recourse to the courts.

B - Economic, social and financial matters - 3 hours a week.

For example:

Basic economic mechanisms.
National income and expenditure.
The plan.
The Budget and fiscal policy.
Social Security and Provident Funds (general ideas).

C - Means of obtaining information, methods of communication and decision-making. 3 hours a week.

Introduction to the working and use of computers.
Ideas of social psychology, administration and social relations.
Decision-making: elements concerning rational choice.

III - Specialised instruction

Students are split into two sections, which are divided into several study groups (of 25) . 8 hours a week.

1 - Administration.

A - Techniques of self-expression and composition.
B - Techniques of finance and fiscal techniques.
C - Quantitative methods.
D - Organisation of Administrative Departments.
E - Data processing and administration.

2 - Management.

A - How to deal with information.
B - Financial management:
Plan of accounting and introduction to accounting.
C - Buildings and furniture of government departments.
D - Management of the Administrative Staff.

IV - Teaching of foreign languages - 1 hour a week.

These courses are assessed.

Opinions on the Regional Administration Institutes from two of their heads

The remarks which follow are extracts from two separate documents:

1. An article written for a local report by M. Gabolde, Président de Tribunal Administratif, Head of the IRA at Lyon.

2. An interview between M. Bouju, teacher (with the aggrégation) in higher education, Head of the IRA at Nantes, and a representative of INAS.

Extracts from the first are preceded by the letter "G"; from the second by the letter "B".

1 - Objectives of the IRAs

A need for initial training

G. The IRAs were created to fill a cavity which had grown gradually worse within the French administration, namely the fact that a number of official bodies were still being recruited directly by means of competitive examination, with no specialised professional training prior to the commencement of their duties .....

G. As the need for training prior to the commencement of duties was clearly apparent, a solution of the same nature as the one which brought about the creation of the ENA was sought in the setting up of the IRAS.

The desire to answer regional needs

G. Although the ideas which existed when the IRAs were set up are similar to those which inspired the creators of the ENA, one should note, however the considerable differences which make this system unique.

G. ..... former students of the ENA are for the most part destined for positions far removed from the realities of provincial life - in spite of moves made during the last few years to encourage them to take up positions at least in the regional development centres. Of course the difference in the places to which the students are sent is explained by the adjective 'regional' which qualifies the Regional Administration Institutes .....

B. As far as recruitment is concerned sufficient emphasis has not yet been placed upon the inter-regional aspect. At Nantes there is an internal disequilibrium which greatly favours the department where the college is. We should make inroads into the surrounding areas.

B. Each IRA will be largely inter-regional and should embrace at least two, if not three, administrative regions.

B. In the first year intake of the IRA at Nantes, we had 29 students from the Pays de la Loire and 21 were assigned in the same area.

B. I believe that certain constants are beginning to appear. Everything depends on the way that a regional Prefet looks at his job.

G. One of the purposes for which the IRAs were created seems to have been achieved: the entrance examination for the IRAs are taken by candidates wishing to take up the kind of career which is on a level with the middle ranks of the Civil Service, and which occurs in the provinces.

Training given by independent bodies

G. In contrast with other similar institutions, the IRAs, like the ENA, are independent and autonomous with respect to the departments which employ their former students.

G. Interministerial processes have progressed in the statutory field - notably since the reform of the Civil Service body in 1965 - but they have not recently received any modifications in the field of recruitment or training.

2 - Status of the Students

G. The students of the IRAs are government officials under instruction. Success in the entrance examinations means they are simultaneously admitted to one of the IRAs as a student and also listed as member of the body of government officials .....

G. On leaving the college they are given a diploma on satisfactory completion of their courses, and are assessed by an examination board. The students are paid and entitled to various allowances.

3 - Tuition and Education

G. The first year is devoted to tuition and the second to practical courses and training sessions.

G. The first year tuition is given at the IRA, and the system consists of an amalgamation of formal lectures, group work and talks.

G. ..... teaching is given by members of the University or Civil Service, using practical methods in an effort to give the students a training which is basic, practical, factual and useful where the public service into which they will enter is concerned.

G. They must be awakened to the basic problems of administration as well as trained in certain techniques of administrative management and policy. With this idea in mind, tuition in the 1st year aims at attaining through a common core of training, a store of knowledge of university calibre, for all students whether they entered by means of the first examination or the second. For the former who were students to begin with, we have to guide their transition from University studies to the taking up of a career .....

B. In addition, we act as a re-orientation for the Arts Faculties .....

G. ..... for students coming from the Civil Service, it is more a question of a re-cycling made necessary by the relatively long period they have spent away from studying.

G. First year studies, as well as the training sessions and practical courses in the second year, are allotted marks .....

G. The examination board, presided over by a teacher in higher education, is made up of university and government officials. It has a dual role; on one hand it gives the student a mark for the oral test, and on the other, after examining the report of the Head of the IRA and the educational dossier of the student which contains all his marks and written work, it draws up an evaluation of his academic career. If the student's academic progress is considered satisfactory, the board declares him worthy to receive the Diploma of Public Administration. If not, and if the student is not capable of undertaking the duties of Category A for which he has been trained, the board does not grant him a diploma. It may suggest he repeats a year.

B. When the student has successfully passed his final examinations, no further recommendation is required; his report is not passed on to the ministry to which he is assigned. We refuse to pass on his college dossier, as we consider it is the private property of the establishment where he was trained.

Training of Students at the IRA (2nd year) - Attachés of University Finance and Administration

Outline of the Syllabus

I - Objectives

- to continue with the theoretical subjects (law, economics or technical subjects) taught in the first year, placing the accent on the special problems of Education

- to give the students a fairly extensive knowledge of the academic environment, in order to facilitate their own integration into the various practical courses and ultimately into their chosen position.

II - Total numbers of hours

The training will last four months. It will consist of approximately 375 hours of talks, tutorials, meetings and visits, spread over a period of fifteen weeks five days.

III - The tuition

The training tuition proposed may be divided according to two general views which correspond to two different approaches to administration:

- a descriptive approach, analysing the structures and the various procedures existing in the different sectors of the Ministry of Education, the external departments and the various establishments.

- a dynamic approach, seeking to determine the different phases in an efficient process of management, and to bring about a realisation of the importance of the problems of co-ordination between the various sectors or levels in administration, as well as the importance of the relationships with parents, pupils and students, teachers and the socio-economic environment.

Certain series are more relevant to students concerned with government administration, or to students concerned with university administration, according to the different hourly quotas allotted to each group.

1) Descriptive approach

Structures

Central administration
Inspection générale (equivalent of HMI)
Rectorats (recteur's offices)
Inspections académiques (body of inspecteurs d'académie)
Schools (different types)
Universities and university work
Special bodies (ONISEP, OFRATEME, INRDP, UGAP, etc...)
Private education

The various functional sectors

For example:

Reports
Examinations
Attendance
Grants
Continuous vocational training

The legal problems particular to Education

The various categories of personnel
The special status of teachers, and of government and university administration
The responsibilities of the organisers and the accountants to the Ministry of Education
Public measures and the Ministry of Education (different levels)

Financial and accounting procedure

The budget of the Ministry of Education and the Universities
The plan of the Ministry of Education and the Universities
General administrative accounting of the establishments
The controls (various levels)
Supervision

Problems concerning food and nutrition

A study of the nutritional needs of adolescents
Food categories
The idea of a balanced diet
How to calculate the amount of food needed
Factors which cause aggression
Supplies and stocks
Distribution
Future for school and university canteens

Problems of safeguarding people and property and of the maintenance of the educational establishment

Internal service
Security
Health in the school
Health service
Accidents in school
General problems in maintenance of buildings and equipment
Special problems concerning technical equipment
Heating and lighting in local schools
Sports facilities and playing fields

2) Dynamic approach

a) Decision-making and management processes

This course aims at completing the student's understanding of management techniques (the study of which began in the first year) which may be employed

at the various levels of the government structure and concerns the ability to obtain information its processing, the interpretation of the results and their utilization.

Data processing in the Ministry of Education and the University

- Principles, analysis, programming
- Present-day application
- Future perspectives

Delegation and decentralisation

- Effects on behaviour
- Changes in decision-making procedures

Forecasting and rational choice

Methods of planning and control in management

Elements of sociology and economics in education

The central bodies, organisation and methods

b) Relations and communications

The place and the role of the attaché

Group behaviour: taking of decisions in groups, procedure at meetings and work groups

The function of meetings, councils and boards

Control and management of personnel

Problems of co-ordination within important organisations

Relations with:

- the establishments
- the departments
- the teachers
- the parents of the pupils
- the students
- the environment

Business relations with suppliers

The Practical Courses

Principles

The second academic year at the IRA should be oriented towards the study of the actual problems of the government departments to which the students will

be assigned, in this case the administration of education (including Universities). The practical courses are therefore very important, and the specialised training lasting four months should enable the student to gain the depth of knowledge necessary to an administrator of education to enable him to grasp immediately the problems existing in the field of education and in the departments which are concerned with it. An initial observation period (one to three weeks) is included in the four month course which begins in the second year. It generally takes place in a school or university. Two longer practical courses follow the four month specialised training. Remember that these are split up by a two month course in a different department.

1) Introductory course

This takes place in an educational establishment or government department. The student does not yet know where he will be assigned. He is advised by a tutor from his own college, and must be aware of the practical problems which face the official in charge. He can judge how far the knowledge he has acquired can be applied to the real life situation.

2) Practical course

This course which takes place in an establishment or department, terminates the second cycle and immediately precedes the taking up of duties. The student knows where he is to be assigned to. As in the previous case, his work is supervised by a tutor. The student must show his abilities and his capacity for managing a department.

Consideration of the Problems Posed to INAS by the Type of Training Given to Students at the IRAs

a) Importance of the initial training of attaches

The attaches are a motor force in the functioning of the departments and establishments of the Ministry of Education and of the State Secretariat at Universities.

Before the founding of the IRAs (1970), the Ministry of Education had made no provision for the organised training of those new to office.

The contradictions which exist in a training scheme initiated by a Ministry outside Education.

The dangers of "over-training" in relation to the actual situation.

b) General plan for the second year

Aim declared by the IRAs: an awareness of the duties of the Ministry of Education and the Universities.

Aims of the Department of Finance and Administration of the INAS:

General:

- to develop the ability to integrate into a team
- to encourage flexibility

Specific:

- attaché = trouble-shooter, who uses his technical skills to serve education as a whole.

c) Realization

Decentralisation of activity: centres associated with INAS established on a level with the recteur's offices.

Profile of local organisers: mostly officials with jobs outside the college.

New activities of INAS.

- Training of the trainers
- Documentation
- Plan of study and research: integration of the different periods of the training.

d) Results

The problem of harmonising two types of activity carried out by INAS.

The academic body responsible for the training of the heads of establishments:
mainly consisting of teaching staff.

The organisers of the associate centres responsible for the training of the attachés:
mainly consisting of government officials.

Would it be possible to evolve towards a system of inter-group study, in a system characterised by the narrowness of its groupings, i.e. teamwork as opposed to a chain of command?

Mlle J Biraud,
Administrative
Adviser, Deputy
Secretary-general,
University of Rennes.

RECRUITMENT OF STUDENTS : WHO SHOULD BE TRAINED IN ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATION?

"In France, as a general rule, the training of civil servants, when it exists, is provided within the framework of the Central Administrative Body to which they belong. Thus more than 10 years ago the former Ministry of National Education set up specialised courses for its employees who wished to work in the education system. Amongst the various aspects of these courses, we are especially concerned here with courses in educational management (schools and universities).

who are the Students?

We shall first try to answer the following question: Who are the students who take a course in educational management?

There are two types of student:-

a. civil servants working for various Ministries (Interior-Equipment - Health - Labour - Social Security - Construction) and also those working in the Recteur's office, in an Inspectorate of the Académie, a University, or attached to the Ministry of Education or the Secretary of State for the Universities.

b. students who, often after two years higher education, wish to prepare competitive examinations for the civil service, and choose educational administration.

There are three things to note here:-

a. this course in educational administration is only a preparation for the administrative entrance examinations which allow one, if successful, to obtain a post in the civil service, in the administration of the Ministry of Education and its dependent departments, or it enables the successful candidate to obtain a more senior post in this same administration.

b. the numbers of these students have considerably increased over the last few years for two reasons:-
   - the desire to better oneself is more and more widespread, and is encouraged by the law of 16th July, 1971, which introduced the principle of continuous vocational training, and thus increases the chances of promotion;
   - the openings offered by the civil service to the numerous arts students who, during or after quite long academic courses, do not find jobs.

   For them, the competitive examinations are the last chance of being able to settle rapidly into working life with a training which, even if it is not immediately useful to the students, often prepare them for the job of an administrator, which demands, amongst other things, a feeling for people, an ability to understand them : indeed, the administrator must possess a high degree of sensibility as well as a sense of organisation and specialised training.

c. consequently, the qualifications of the students are of a higher and higher calibre. It is not uncommon to find holders of a licence (first university degree awarded after 3 or 4 years study), a maîtrise (next university degree - above licence), or a doctorate, preparing competitive examinations for which officially only two years study in higher education are demanded.

when and how are the students trained?

There are several methods of training:-

1) In Preparation Centres for General Administration

The centres were set up in 1966 to prepare students for various administrative examinations.

For example, the centre in Rennes, in Brittany, prepares them for a number of examinations giving access to grade A posts in the Civil Service (that is, a level for which the candidates must have a qualification corresponding to two years higher education or equivalent, and which allows them to obtain posts of responsibility in charge of an office or department).

The centres are open:-

a. primarily to students who have already finished a one or three year examination course in higher education are registered at the University for a further year's study in order to obtain a higher qualification.

b. also, within the limits of place numbers, to students who already have the necessary qualifications for the competitive examination, provided they are registered at University for a course of study.

c. to civil servants of the Ministry of Education released to the Preparation Centre for General Administration, or with leave of absence to prepare the administrative entrance examinations.

The students can prepare in one year either external competitive examinations which are open to those with certain qualifications (the diploma of the first cycle for the exam for becoming an attaché of University Administration, or a 'licence' for the exam for administrative adviser to university services), or internal competitive examinations open only to civil servants who have a certain number of years of service.

The organisation of the teaching remains traditional, and is composed of:-

a. basic general education, including lectures on methodology at various levels, history, political institutions and a series of lectures on general subjects.

b. specialised training in Public Finance, Administrative Law, Financial Economy.

Finally, the course is completed by lectures given by specialists, teachers or senior civil servants, and dealing with subjects too technological or too specialised to be dealt with in a formal lecture.

Students can obtain grants from the public authorities, with the proviso that they remain in State service for 5 years.

2) In the Institutes of Regional Administration - IRA

The students enter the IRA after a competitive examination. The general education of candidates is ensured previously by a complete cycle of broadly based higher education studies.

The course in the IRA lasts two years.

The pedagogical idea behind these Institutes is based on a two-tiered system.

- a general and continuous education, directed towards the rôle and the means at the disposal of Administration during the first year, in the form of formal lectures and tutorials.

The practical training is achieved by tutorials and practical work from the first year on, using the general knowledge acquired. In the second year it is continued on a sandwich basis, alternating with training periods, and directed towards case studies.

Some gifted and highly motivated students, on leaving the IRA after obtaining the diploma of Public Administration, continue their studies in a third cycle.

Whilst the Preparation Centres for General Administration are preparation centres for competitive civil service examinations (including those for Educational Administration), the IRA exist to train candidates over two years in the field of administration, including those who may decide, according to their aptitude and motivation, to work in Educational Administration.

3) In the Universities

Training in educational administration may be; either an initial training or a continuous training.

a. initial training

Some Universities prepare students for 'work credits' in general administration; others in the Science of Education. But there is as yet in France no initial university training in educational administration. The expertise involved is to be found only in practising administrators, and has not been admitted as a university discipline. This raises the question of the training and qualifications of educational administrators.

Moreover, it must be emphasised that the competitive examinations for Educational Administration have been organised with the aim of recruiting staff with a certain level of general education, and are not in the least professional examinations.

This explains one of the rôles which has fallen to the National Institution of Educational Administration : to provide courses of varying duration for candidates who are successful in the examination, in order to train them for their future posts.

b. continuous training

It seems that the training of staff in educational administration can at present only be carried out by continuous training. The Universities have therefore a major rôle to play in this sphere. We should emphasise that the realisation of this need is fairly new, and that Universities have an important part to play since this training will quickly involve a large number of educational administrators already in post.

Recently the University of Rennes carried out a survey amongst its own administrative staff to find out their needs in the field of vocational training. The motivation of the staff seems at present to be the preparation of competitive examinations, the only possibility they have of promotion. However, over and above these individual preoccupations, which nevertheless deserve our attention, some university officials believe they should devote their attentions to improving the training of the staff for the particular job they do, which is a much wider task, and which along can influence the workings of educational administration. The difficulties of setting up such training are, of course, financial, but also pedagogical.

It is not easy to define the matters dealt with in educational administration. One can only determine certain techniques useful to educational administrators in the exercise of their functions, which can be extremely varied according to the institution in which they work and their particular job. Indeed, one cannot compare the work done by the secretary of the Head of a secondary school and that of a secretary working in the accountancy department of a University, although these two people often obtain their posts by passing the same entrance examination.

These techniques can include office administration, accountancy, data processing, oral communication, public relations, or the organisation of meetings which could in the first instance be the basis of the training proposed by the Universities for their own administrative staff.

Conclusion:-

The complexity of administrative duties has gradually made people aware of

a. the need to follow up success in an administrative entrance examination by a training adapted to the actual job of the employee. Because of lack of funds, the efforts made in this field are not sufficient to cover all needs.

b. the existence of a hard core to this training which for the moment serves merely to make people aware of the problem.

Universities can be instrumental in developing and dispensing certain techniques, and later certain courses in educational administration of a professional nature."

Y Martin,
Lecturer,
University
of Paris 8.

THE TRAINING OF THE INNOVATOR

"What training should be given to the academic administrator to make an innovator of him? As a preliminary measure, we reject authoritarianism where teaching is concerned: the idea of training "managers" who will disrupt their social - professional milieu, already open to strong criticism on the level of business concerns, is ideological in the sense that it over-estimates individual wills to the detriment of group processes and educational structures.

The definition of a training must of course take into account the entire educational plan developed by the political power, and the new definition of the social role of the agent once trained. This definition is not only statutory, legal or in accordance with regulations, it is also practical: reform of the curricula, self-discipline, or the creation of the administration councils in the establishments of secondary education in France, have modified the image of the educational establishment.

Therefore, the training will not lie in the acquisition of set and registered roles, otherwise it would be limited to preparing for the reactions of bureaucracy.

The study of the common points and differences between the English and French educational systems allows one to outline some characteristic features of the educational administrators in their capacity as innovators.

Hypotheses of Training

1. The administrator is very often caused to recall the 'law of fixed total cost' in the course of the process of change. Responsible for the execution of a budget, he generally has an endowment at his command whose structure he can sometimes modify (the case in the United Kingdom) without having much power over the total quantity.

2. The administrator - head of the establishment, an inspector or agent of the Ministry - is connected with numerous social-professional categories: the students, the parents, the teachers, the administrative and technical personnel, the local councillors etc... In these conditions, the taking of an autocratic decision is excluded.

3. The administrator, through his offices, is in a way a point of affinity between the different social categories which have their explicit or implicit aims, their own language and their own system of values. The interventions of the teachers, the approaches of the parents, the behaviour of the students are, behind all the individual cases, signs which the head of the establishment must interpret into decisions. A petition from the parents or a demonstration by the students results perhaps from a partial or fragmentary difficulty, but also from a whole local, economic and political context. The decoding of these signs falls on the administrator, in so far as he wishes to meet the requirements which have been made manifest.

4. The boundary between management or administration and education is not absolute. We know very well that the inflexibility of an accountable and financial system (the case in the establishments of secondary education in France) can block a large part of the pedagogic innovations, without speaking of the obstacles related to the teachers. A training which is too highly focused on the administrative procedures runs a strong risk of reinforcing these obstructions. We will never be able to sufficiently emphasise the concept that the act of teaching goes beyond the teacher-pupil relationship and inserts itself into a complex network of systems of power, communication and production.

5. If the rationalising distinction between aims and means seems useful (cf PPBS), it is not necessarily appropriate to a strategy of change. The rational formulation of an innovation often takes place after an experience has been undergone. In place of the following over-simplified scheme:-
   - the political authorities fix the objectives (eg. equal opportunities)
   - the administrators choose and think out the means,

   it is fitting to substitute a more dialectic approach according to which an innovation put into practice changes the initial aims and creats others. The logistics of the innovation (the credits, the buildings, the personnel...) fixes the choice of some possibilities. The administrator is thus led, at one moment or another, to ask himself about the end results of the undertaken change and education in general.

6. The administrator should have an important role in the process of evaluating the changes in the educational system: Are the objectives attained? Has the innovation been recovered by the educational system? What have been the methods of obstruction? This evaluation is only possible if the administrator participates in the innovation removed from any hierarchical connection, for example with the quality of a simple teacher.

The Aims and the Means of Training

- To make easy the understanding and interpretation of the behaviour of those who play a rôle in the educational system:
  . to guarantee teaching activity during a period of some months;
  . participate in meetings of pupils' parents;
  . to be informed about the economic and political situation of the geographical zone for which one is responsible as an administrator;
  . to pool and analyse these experiences (where? how?);
  . to sensitise the teachers to certain administrative problems (which? how?).

- To link knowledge ('savoir') and ability ('savoir-faire'): the management of an educational plan, such as it is practised in Sheffield, affords great interest whatever the risks incurred. After all, is not innovation an enterprise involving unforseeable risks?

- To give a financial and administrative training orientated towards the management of new pedagogic activity: analytical accountancy, calculation of expenses, planning, etc. This is only workable in a management system which is flexible and decentralised.

- To guarantee a multi-disciplinary training (-economic, sociological, statistical, juridical) which allows one to grasp at the same time the unity and the diversity of the phenomena and the essential processes of the educational system: pedagogic relationship, selection, cultural segregation, professional training.

- To organise the training according to a scheme which leaves a lot of room for:-
  . experimentation in the concrete processes of management,
  . continuous training,
  . evaluation of the innovations (new streams, reform of the curricula for example)."

R Wattiaux,
Headmaster,
Lycée Louis
Pasteur, Lille.

TUTORS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION - IMPRESSIONS, FIRST HAND ACCOUNTS, REFLECTIONS

"In France, the Headmaster is a teacher chosen by the educational authorities from a list of those eligible, on which he has asked to be placed. Since 1970, training schemes have been run for candidates chosen to exercise administrative functions. The tutors are practising educational administrators working at various levels in the administrative set-up.

Any administrative system is a junction between structures and reality. This is true of educational administration which:-

1. is evolving between two extremes
   - the regulations drawn up according to psycho-pedagogical knowledge and a certain political choice.
   - day to day reality, taking into consideration human, individual, local, regional and social peculiarities.
2. concerns two publics:-
   - the educators: the educational teams and their technical environment.
   - the users: the pupils, their parents and their cultural and economic environment.
3. has two ways of functioning:-
   - the management, which, within the framework of regulations, governs every action.
   - the organisation, which allows the maximum liberty for everyone within the structure of the community.

At the beginning of a training course in educational administration, because of the constraints imposed by the system, the trainees see their tutors as dispensers of "savoir-faire", and pitch their needs at the level of wanting information on regulations, focussing their attention on matters in which they recognise themselves as wanting. This is the first difficulty, since concentrating too much on a knowledge of regulations has a sterilising effect on administrative actions, and to neglect it risks setting up frustrations which could interfere with the efficiency of the course.

Moreover, the tutor is considered as a witness of the realities of administration, and the requests of the trainees, as well as a natural inclination to quote his own experience, may lead him to give a monologue, or worse still, to an artificial dialogue prejudicial to the training.

From the outset, everything tends to isolate the tutor, whereas in order to be efficient it is essential that he should mix with the trainees, and be the catalyst which would create a genuine intergration of the group he leads.

This phase of assimilation with the group makes it necessary for the tutor to introduce himself without mentioning his rank to establish a relationship not based on seniority. Moreover, as the trainees have a personal view of the administrative system, he must be prepared to be a target for criticism. Finally, he must meet the expectations of the trainees in a simple, but competent, way, basing his teaching on versatile methods, and with clear aims in mind. He must bring his group to consider him as a source of ideas, always efficient, always available, always enthusiastic, but part of the group, without any attempt to manipulate it. Only then can the tutor act effectively with his group, assisting them towards a consciousness of their present state, and a realisation of what they should strive to become.

The tutor's job will then be to create cohesion in the group. He will have to encourage the trainees to express themselves openly, and for this he must know how to listen, to observe, in order to see that everyone gets a fair chance to air his views. He must make himself constantly available in order to help break down psychological barriers within the group, which in turn should ensure an open exchange of opinions, so that ideas can be discussed, people can be made aware of their needs, and information can be obtained.

The participation and the drive of the tutor must lead the group to a consciousness of the aims of the course: to know how to create administrative authority by encouraging each trainee to play a different role. But the tutor must not forget that, even when he has become part of the group, he must set an example. Where he is concerned, any inflexibility or inhibitions in his behaviour, and holding back of information, constitute a harmful model of authority, leading to authoritarianism tinged with a certain smugness. The tutor must establish beyond any doubt his sincerity and his adaptability. The tutor must not lose sight of the fact that the aim is to provide living proof of the way in which the relationship between the personality and the job works out in reality.

The uncovering of the needs of the group should permit him to establish his competence, for the trainees are discovering a situation of which they know only the external aspects, whether favourable or not, as users of the system. He must reveal the internal conditions obtaining in the exercise of the job of an administrator, the diversity of the fields in which he must work, the importance of personal relationships in the performance of his duties. His comments form a kind of counterpoint to the discussions of the group, by generalising concepts, or throwing new light on the problems discussed.

Thus the elucidation of administrative regulations can be the occasion for insisting on the fact that any regulation is a framework within which the freedom to evolve exists, and must be developed. The administrator must accept regulations, but if he applies them too narrowly and rigidly, he paralyses management by making it restrictive, he becomes unwilling to accept sensible compromises, or to accept new ideas. One could even claim that this goes against the spirit of the regulations, and leads to a regrettable lack of initiative in decision making, and adoption of the easy way out of any difficult situation, whereas responsibility should be fully exercised within the community concerned.

Even though the administrator must respect the regulations, the tutor must state clearly that the administrator has two ways of expressing his desire to modify them, or to propose new regulations:-

- within the organisation, using the hierarchical system in existence, which should be applied as flexibly as possible.
- outside the organisation, using one's rights as an ordinary citizen within the community of the nation.

Loyalty demands that the administrator, faced with changing events, should propose solutions to the problems, whilst at the same time doing his level best to ensure the smooth running of the system as it stands.

The tutor must give the members of his group an overall view of the duties of an administrator. Aware of the position of the school within society, he must get the trainees to see specific problems in a wider context, to take into consideration the world we live in, to take the decisions demanded by today's world. Indeed, although the educational system forms part of the life of the nation, it tends, like all highly structured organisations, to claim certain privileges, to be inward looking. The tutor must therefore persuade the trainees to look beyond the educational system itself, and to see not only the cultural life of the nation, but also (and most important of all), the industrial and economic life of the nation. It is not enough simply to take a brief excursion into this other world to see how it functions: one must experience it at first hand in order to be properly aware of the needs and the place of education within the modern world.

The tutor must therefore possess many qualities, but he must not hide his failings either, that is to say he must appear what he is - a man like any other. The tutor must be himself, and not be content simply to represent a system. He should not be the stereo-type of the perfect administrator trying to produce carbon copies of himself, but a responsible adult carrying out a job which he discusses openly with a group of other responsible adults. The paternalistic attitude must at all costs be avoided. The tutor must not make a mystery of the complexities of his function, he must not seek to hide his true character, his real personality. In the exercise of his authority it is perfectly legitimate for him to laugh, to scold, to become enthusiastic, to oppose other people's decisions to make mistakes and to admit it.

The tutor is not there to illuminate the course with the flame of truth; he is there to help make the group aware of reality.

Thus the members of the group will experience for themselves the reality of group work, and will appreciate the need to come to a common decision whilst respecting the freedom of opinion of each member. All too often, responsibility in administrative matters creates in the administrator tensions and a sense of solitude; the relaxed attitude of the tutor should show this to be unnecessary.

The educational administrator is there to serve the nation: the tutor is there to serve the trainees in order to serve the nation."

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